

FUNDAMENTAL AND ADULT EDUCATION

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EDITORIAL

This issue is a 'social science' one, and the articles in it present for consideration some of the contributions which the social science disciplines can make to educational work among adults. It is not the first time we have presented our readers with material on this subject. They will recall the two articles by Professor Margaret Read on the significance of anthropological research which appeared in our April 1955 and July 1955 issues and that by Dagfinn Sivertsen on the role that social science students can play in a fundamental education training scheme, also in the July 1955 issue. The importance of the initial community surveys carried out before an educational campaign is launched has been recognized for several years. We do not treat of this aspect in the present issue, as two recent articles by Gabriel Anzola Gomez, which appeared in our October 1955 and January 1956 issues, gave the reasons for the methodology and use of these surveys.

It was perhaps natural that sooner or later the adult educator should turn to the social scientist for guidance on how to carry out his work more effectively and from time to time obtain a reasonably accurate picture of the impact of his programme on a community. The articles which follow will be found to deal with the various implications of these two questions and to show some of the insight and guidance which the adult educator can obtain from a study of social science literature as well as the possibilities which exist for employing social scientists in community programmes. The articles of Belén M. Serra and J.-C. Pauvert are presented together because they show the use of social science methods in generalized community programmes; those by Sten Wahlund and G. E. R. Burroughs because they examine some of the possibilities and limitations of measuring or evaluating progress made in community campaigns. Ronald Lippitt and Leland Bradford are placed together to show the theoretical background of group dynamics and its practical implications. The article by Dieter Danckwortt stands alone, showing the development of special methods to assess the effectiveness of a particular educational technique, and presents some of the results of the inquiry.

We may conclude this editorial note by calling attention to the quotation from David Krech which appears in the article by Belén M. Serra: 'In social research the social scientist . . . must seek the original formulation of his problems from the man of social action. Only when the man of action is given this organic role to play can research become a mature and significant tool of today's world.' In the field of educational work with adults the initiative lies with the educators. It is for us to define those fields in which we can most effectively profit from the special knowledge and techniques of the social scientist. This issue is presented in the hope that it will contribute to the formulation of problems requiring research.

THE INTEGRATION OF SOCIAL RESEARCH AND FIELD ACTION IN A PROGRAMME OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION

BELÉN M. SERRA

There is growing awareness among practitioners of adult and community education of the need for extending the possibilities of their work by the systematic appraisal of programmes in operation and by the close study of social situations and relationships. This awareness results from a recognition that the trial-and-error method is costly in a world where problems are critical and far-reaching in their effects, and where there is already a body of knowledge that allows for the more efficient treatment of these problems. Furthermore, it will be from the actual experience of practitioners that this body of knowledge will grow in a manner adequate to the needs of our times. Social theories of human behaviour and satisfaction have finally to be tested in the natural medium of the community. This means that, to improve gradually on what we now have, it is essential for social practitioners and social scientists to work together on the application of a sound methodology in programmes of action.

These fundamental concerns led the Division of Community Education of Puerto Rico to incorporate in its programme from the beginning a unit of social research and analysis. In this way a relationship was created between administrators, field workers and researchers. This paper considers some of the factors that have operated in the practical development of this relationship. Before they are discussed, a brief explanation of the Division's programme of community education is included for the benefit of those who are not acquainted with its work.

THE DIVISION OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION¹

The establishment of the Division of Community Education as an agency within the Department of Education was an act of the Legislature of Puerto Rico designed to broaden and strengthen the educational roots of democracy in the daily living practices of the urban and rural population of the Commonwealth.

This act became effective on 14 May 1949. Its preamble states clearly the fundamental purposes of the programme as follows:

Statement of Motives. Law No. 372, 14 May 1949

The goal of community education is to impart basic teaching on the nature of man, his history, his life, his way of working and of self-governing in the world and in Puerto Rico. Such teaching, addressed to adult citizens meeting in groups in the barrios, settlements and urban districts, will be imparted through moving pictures, radio, books, pamphlets and posters, phonographic records, lectures and group discussions. The object is to provide the good hand of our popular culture with the tool of a basic education. In practice this will mean giving to the communities and to the Puerto Rican community in general the wish, the tendency, and the way to make use of their own aptitudes for the solution of many of their own problems of health, education, co-operation, and social life through the action of the community itself. The community should not be civically unemployed. The community can be constantly and usefully employed in its own service, in terms of pride and satisfaction for the members thereof. The communal acti-

1. For a more detailed explanation of the Division's programme refer to *The Journal of Social Issues*, New York., Vol. IX, No. 2, entitled *Community Change: An Action Programme in Puerto Rico*. See also: *Community Education in Puerto Rico*, Paris, Unesco, 1952 (*Occasional Papers in Education*, No. 14).

vities of which our people are capable on a basis of guidance and training can produce returns for millions of dollars annually in the solution of problems and improvements of life. This is the fundamental purpose of the programme of community education authorized by this Act.

The Division began its work in July 1949. Its fundamental concern is to develop a programme whereby the communities of Puerto Rico receive educational help in their search for sound methods to bring about the solution of their problems in order that the community may thereby grow into a centre of democratic living. This is done in the field through the efforts of group organizers, who stimulate the community to meet for the discussion of common problems, devising means of treating them and working for their solution. In this work the group organizers are aided by the written materials and the films produced by the Division. The content and style of the materials are geared to the objectives of the programme.

At the start the programme concentrated on the rural areas of Puerto Rico. Of the 1,000 more or less clearly defined neighbourhoods or communities in this area, the Division is able to reach today only 350. To reach more, a larger number of field workers would be needed. In June 1955, three field workers began a programme in 24 urban communities within the greater metropolitan area of San Juan.

More and more of these communities are building material things for their own betterment, but the objectives of the Division transcend the physical accomplishments achieved. The newly built structure is a landmark on the road to community growth and development; it is not the road itself. Only a close examination of the day-by-day adherence to the principles of democratic participation and action will show the nature of the road along which the community is travelling.

THE SOCIAL RESEARCH PROGRAMME OF THE DIVISION

In keeping with the basic procedural postulate of the Division, the role and function of its Analysis Unit are developing through staff group discussions. This has been the practice since the beginning.

How to provide for the Research Programme

In setting up a new organization—be it public or private—some of the questions that have to be answered first are usually of a practical nature and relate to administrative matters. Questions of research and analysis within an action programme start with the fundamental one: What is the more productive arrangement—to have a unit of research and evaluation within the agency, or to contract with an outside research organization to carry out analysis projects at given times? This question was the subject of serious consideration in early staff discussions of the Division. Valid arguments for both sides were discussed, but finally it was decided that the unit should be developed within the Division. It was believed that the research material would be more usefully designed and more adequately used if the analysis staff were an integral part of the agency. This provides a greater opportunity for the participation of practitioners in the actual development of the research design and in the analysis of data collected.

Experience has shown that this early decision was a sound one. Visitors to the Division often ask how we have succeeded in integrating the researcher and the practitioner in a productive pattern of work. The answer seems to lie in the high degree of participation of field workers in the formulation and development of the research programme. This is facilitated by having the working relationship of communications established on a permanent basis. It thus becomes an oft-used channel. With the research team close



Community members meet in the open field to read and discuss one of the Division's booklets. (Department of Education, Commonwealth of Puerto Rico.)

at hand field people readily define the questions and problems that become the areas for research.¹

Similarly, by having the unit within the Division, the researcher grows sufficiently familiar with operating conditions in the field and with the administrative structure of the agency and can thus take them adequately into account when designing research methodology. Collected data are interpreted jointly without difficulty, and results are communicated and discussed without relying principally on written reports, which more often than not remain unread.

What Personnel to use

Once it was decided to establish an Analysis Unit within the Division, the question arose as to what personnel was needed to carry on this specialized activity. It was understood that only professionally trained researchers could do the work efficiently. This posed a serious problem for the administrators. Even in countries where the social sciences are far advanced there is a scarcity of adequately trained research personnel. This critical situation operates also in Puerto Rico. Thus the Division had either to bring in experienced personnel from outside Puerto Rico who would be strange to our ways, or to place the responsibility in the hands of local staff whose capacities would be developed through a planned programme of training and consultation. With a view to our own growth, the latter course was taken and time has proved it a wise decision. The analysis staff was selected from professionals with graduate training

1. On this point it is pertinent to consider the clear and forceful definition which Professor David Krech makes of the practitioner's contribution to social research when he writes: '... in social science, the problems to be studied are not necessarily best posed by the social scientist in the first instance, but by members of society itself—by the governmental administrator, the legislator, the union leader, the business man, the foreman in the plant, the head of a Mayor's Action Committee on Community Relations.

'It is at this point that the social scientist has frequently been remiss. He has operated as if social science research could be defined as "the scientific study of those problems which the social scientist is interested in studying". Instead he must define it as "the scientific study of those problems which the members of society are interested in solving". In social research the social scientist . . . must seek the original formulation of his problems from the man of social action. Only when the man of action is given this organic role to play can research become a mature and significant tool of today's world.' (David Krech, 'The Challenge and the Promise', *The Journal of Social Issues*, New York, November 1946, p. 4.)

Survey interviewers who are temporary members of the analysis staff meet to discuss problems of field work. (Department of Education, Commonwealth of Puerto Rico.)



in various fields of the social sciences: social work, sociology, economics—and with experience in different projects of social research. Arrangements were then made with the Institute for Social Research of the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor to act as consultants in the development of an adequate programme of research and analysis. Members of the Institute's staff have visited the Division at different times and aided in the broad aspects of the research programme as well as in the development of specific analysis projects. At the same time members of the Analysis Unit have travelled to Michigan to study in the graduate departments of the University and to consult with the staff of the Institute on current specific problems. This relationship has now continued for five years and has always been most fruitful. It has met our dual need for professional training and for programme consultation.

Developing the Relationship between Researchers and Practitioners

There are of course dangers in a close relationship between the research and the field staffs in a programme of action. The former may lose objectivity; the latter may try to limit the freedom of thought and action which is essential to the scientific method. To avoid such pitfalls the Division has developed the following operational procedures: The agency's administrators and its field staff participate in defining the objectives to be covered by the research programme. They bring out the problems they want to examine and help develop general plans for specific analysis projects.

The responsibility for designing and applying the actual plan of the research project and the methodology to be used rests solely with the analysis staff. As the project progresses and the research activities are developed in the field, the Analysis Unit, either informally or through memoranda or meetings, reports the development of the project to the operational staffs. Any matter which needs discussion is cleared with the field personnel.

The research designs for analysis and evaluation are discussed and revised with the consultants from the University of Michigan. Contact is maintained with this group of consultants by mail and through personal visits.

The interpretation of facts once they have been isolated is the joint responsibility of the analysis and field staff. Findings are presented by researchers in the form seen as most useful to the operational units: graphs, statistical tables, case histories, short memoranda on specific subjects, complete written reports. These then become the media for full group discussions at different interest levels.

It goes without saying that, no matter what procedures are devised, the quality of the

working relationship between the social practitioner and the researcher is determined by the basic attitudes which these professionals bring to it. The need for incorporating a scientific rationale into the programme of action must be accepted by both without reservations. Natural resistances to the processes of ordered thought and evaluation must be recognized and dealt with constructively. In trying to reach this mutual understanding and respect, the importance of meeting frequently and talking things over cannot be overstressed. It is necessary also to define as early as possible the different contributions to the total programme of both research and field staff. If the particular functions of each are clearly differentiated and well co-ordinated no question arises as to unwelcome interference or hidden motivations.

What Research Projects to undertake

The research projects that the Analysis Unit of the Division has undertaken are prompted by the needs of the programme as it develops. Initially there was need for information about the perceptions, the opinions and attitudes, the behaviour of the rural adult population of Puerto Rico in the areas that most concern the programme of community education. Specifically we wanted to know how the people perceived common problems, proposed solutions for them, and accepted personal and communal responsibility for the treatment of these problems. We wished to learn more of their feelings of personal capacity, their concept and practice of leadership, and their social values. The research study designed to obtain this information took the form of an island-wide survey of a sample of rural dwellers drawn according to recognized sampling procedures. Interviews were held with more than 1,800 adults (21 years of age or over), using a questionnaire of the 'fixed question-free answer' type to guide the inquiry.¹ The data obtained were analysed and discussed with members of the Division's personnel. These included administrators, supervisors and field workers, writers, artists, film directors and technicians. The findings have served a variety of purposes. They have helped in the formulation of agency policy and in the development of work techniques; they have provided ideas for treatment in the written materials and the films produced by the Division. And primarily they serve as a basis for comparison with information to be gathered in the future regarding these same areas of behaviour and attitude. It will be possible then to ascertain certain changes that have occurred and the direction that these changes indicate.

After completing this important research study, the unit centred its attention on specific problems that have arisen from the accumulation of experience in the field. The research staff collaborated with field workers in the diagnosis of three communities where help was requested: one, where difficulties with the established leadership were present; another, where the expected progress in group development was not attained; and still another, where the contrary was true.

At the request of staff members responsible for the preparation of the written materials used in the programme, the unit analysed the distribution and readability of one of the Division's booklets. As a result of this study, the procedure for book distribution was revised and it became clear how far the materials prepared were comprehensible.² Additional investigation is needed in this area, as well as in the comparable field of the educational film. Exploratory tests have been carried out in this field but as yet no formal study has been designed of the effectiveness of the audio-visual materials produced by the Division.

The programme of the Division was extended recently to certain urban sectors of the

1. For a complete description of the methodology used in this survey as well as of the results obtained from it see: *The Use of Social Research in a Community Education Programme*, Paris, Unesco, 1954 (*Educational Studies and Documents*, No. X).
2. The preliminary report on this study is available in mimeographed form from the Division.

While visiting a community the field worker stops to chat with a group of neighbours. (Department of Education, Commonwealth of Puerto Rico.)



metropolitan area of San Juan. A survey similar to the one already mentioned was taken of this metropolitan population before plans were completed for the initial development of the urban programme. Through staff discussions at different levels, the information obtained was used to orient these plans and to establish a basis for future evaluation of changes that may occur in the areas studied. A report of the findings of this survey is in preparation.

At present the analysis staff is engaged in the development of a research project conceived to determine the comparative impact of the programme of community education in a number of communities. Sixteen communities are being subjected to intensive study. These represent three levels of programme development, mostly in terms of length of time of treatment; that is to say, communities where the programme has been in operation for two or more years, for one year or less, and communities which field workers of the Division have never visited. The last will serve as a 'control' in the analysis of findings. The study design combines in its methodology a survey of the adult population repeated after an interval in time, the direct observation of all activities in a number of these communities during this interval of time, and the analysis of the records kept by the field personnel working in these communities. Plans for this research project may be modified in the light of experience gained.

Evaluation is not the Only Concern of the Research Programme

Thus an integrated programme of research and analysis can make lasting contributions to the total agency effort. These contributions may be somewhat different from what is usually expected of analysis. The initial thought in the minds of some administrators may be that the researchers are in the programme for the purpose of passing moral judgment; of giving a precise and prompt answer to the question: is the programme a 'good' or a 'bad' one in terms of what it accomplishes in the field? This would place the burden of decision-making on the shoulders of the analysis staff and would mean the failure of collaboration and integration.

More and more the programmes of adult and community education are aiming not at the teaching of various skills and crafts, but at a change of basic attitudes for the sake of a more satisfactory process of social living. This means that the relative success of these programmes has to be measured in the abstract terms of personal and social growth, and not in the familiar figures of easily computed statistics. The social sciences are at the moment evolving some of these abstract measures; others do not exist and need to be devised. And, even when devised, they will not give a definite

answer as to the success or failure of a given programme. Rather will they provide a body of evidence, perhaps more objectively gathered than other material available, that will aid the practitioner in his constant struggle to examine his educational techniques so that the results of his daily procedures may come increasingly in line with the basic objectives and principles under which he operates.

Researchers and practitioners in adult and community education must interest themselves in developing the units of measurement needed to make this kind of record. To do this they must study together the educational techniques, the details of daily practice and more particularly the objectives and principles that guide the programme in this field.

Of similar importance is the aid that social researchers can give community education practitioners in the formulation of working theories of human motivation, learning and interaction that will guide the programme in its development. Without this theoretical framework action taken will lack consistency and its impact will be dissipated. It is difficult for the man of action by himself to find among the welter of decisions that have to be made daily the time to build this logical structure of theory and hypothesis. The researcher can stimulate and help him to do it.

Finally, a real challenge to meaningful research lies in the need to observe in a variety of cultural settings the processes of social behaviour and change. There is increasing evidence that group and inter-group relationships closely depend upon the social situation and vice versa. Such evidence points clearly to the necessity of submitting the laws and theories formulated by social scientists to the critical test of universal application. Educational programmes all over the world could be turned into natural laboratories where this essential requirement of the scientific method would be met. It might be of great significance for a world organization such as Unesco to study the feasibility of sponsoring an international programme of social research and action. Through systematic observation and analysis of the experiences of people of different nations, there would emerge finally the kind of understanding of human endeavour that will transcend all barriers.

THE SOCIAL SCIENCES AS AN AID IN FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

JEAN-CLAUDE PAUVERT

Underdeveloped peoples who are involved in the processes of structural change, adaptation and integration must, in a short space of time, organize their economic and political institutions and assume ever-wider responsibilities, especially when these processes are the result of their having achieved independence.

Fundamental education should be judged in relation to the help (often thought too limited or too slow) which it can provide in solving these difficulties, which are becoming increasingly urgent owing to the speed at which events take place today.

It is thus becoming obvious that the very definition of the principles of fundamental education calls for a detailed sociological analysis of the present forms of change in underdeveloped societies. This point is brought home by research undertaken on specific situations in Africa south of the Sahara.

I shall not attempt to enter into other aspects—less essential, in my opinion—of the contribution which the social sciences make to fundamental education, particularly

the choice of methods and techniques and the evaluation of results. Nothing will be said, therefore, about a number of highly important problems of sociology, and social psychology arising from the discovery and use of leaders (especially by sociometric methods), the application of group therapy for the settlement of conflicts, the use of techniques for the analysis and guidance of public opinion (including mass media), and the application of many other methods by which 'public relations' can be developed between whole populations and those responsible for their development.

FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION AND MOTIVATIONS

We were first induced to prepare a programme of education and local community development as a result of surveys carried out in Gabon. Investigations into social organization and, in particular, certain types of structural change in the Fang society of Woleu N'Tem (northern Gabon) had shown that such internal forces could be used as a sound basis for an educational campaign, and could give it a practical significance for all the local groups concerned. The Fang tribes scattered through the forest were tending to re-establish certain forms of group and community life which could be used in a modern society.¹ These investigations showed how important a part motivation can play in community development and adult education. This was clear from the fact that it was possible to take advantage of the spontaneous movement for tribal reorganization, known as *alar ayong* among the Fang, in order to carry out a programme of modernization in the villages, for example by organizing teams to do work of importance to the community.² The elucidation of the concept of motivation in the regional and cultural context thus appears to be one of the most important tasks of all social anthropologists who wish to assist those responsible for fundamental education.

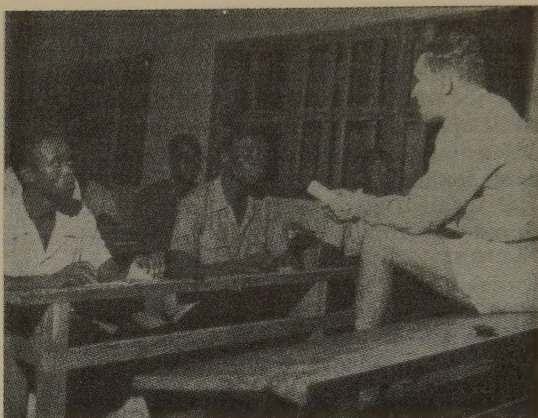
In a first report to the office of the Governor-General of French Equatorial Africa in 1951, we stressed this essential fact,³ which can mean little to the educationist unless he eschews every form of ethnocentrism in his dealings with the group to be educated. With regard to this motivation approach, the methods developed by Lickert, Bogardus, Thurstone and Doob for evaluating attitudes have proved useful in African communities

FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION AND LOCAL COMMUNITIES

The analysis of structures and of their reorganization would also show the functional unity of small social groups, such as the village or clan. Among the Fang, the village, in particular, appeared to be a zone of community life, providing the essential frame within which internal factors of progress could operate, each village tending to reconstitute

1. Cf. G. Balandier and J.-C. Pauvert, *Les Villages Gabonais*, Brazzaville, 1953 (*Mémoire No. 5 de l'Institut d'Études Centrafricaines*); and J.-C. Pauvert, 'Social Action and Fundamental Education in French Equatorial Africa', in *Fundamental and Adult Education*, Vol. V, No. 2, April 1953, p. 64.
2. These are also the principles adopted by American specialists in applied anthropology or social engineering. Cf. in particular, Herskovits, *Man and His Works*, and the review, *Applied Anthropology*. There is no need to dwell on the evidence for the importance of self-interest to be found in Dewey's psychological and educational research, for example, and in the phenomenological theories of behaviour, which substitute the concept of motive for that of cause.
3. *Action Sociale et Education de Base en A.E.F., Rapport au Gouvernement Général de l'A.E.F.*, Brazzaville, Institut d'Études Centrafricaines, 1951. In 1954, a symposium was held on the comparative study of motivations and incentives, particularly economic ones, in traditional and modernized communities in underdeveloped countries; the results were published in the Bulletin of the International Research Office on the Social Implications of Technological Change, sponsored by the International Social Science Council, Paris.

Evening class for African civil servants who want to learn book-keeping. (Unesco.)



a clan unit. We therefore conceived a fundamental education programme to be based on the rural district centres. These centres would be modernized with the active help of the population, whose motivations had been studied and could be made use of.

The idea of local community development also guided our fundamental education experiments in the Cameroons and those undertaken during the same period in Ubangi and in French West Africa. The village or canton seems to provide an ideal field for the conduct of educational projects in which the group takes an active part, for the latter is small enough to find all the activities proposed to it feasible within the bounds of its accustomed horizon.

At this point, however, a fundamental difficulty arose; if this local community education were really to be mass education, reaching a large enough section of the population, it could not be confined to a few small groups; consequently the sociological and psychosociological analysis had to cover not only the characteristics of these local communities, but also their interrelations and their whole environment.

FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION, GROUP ATTITUDES AND HUMAN RELATIONS

We were able to undertake such an analysis more recently in Togoland, where migration on a large scale, caused by the introduction of a modernized system of peasant farming and the development of a extensive region of the territory, has given rise to fundamental education problems affecting a large population.

This migration involves two ethnic groups (the Kabré and the Losso) from north Togoland, impelled mainly by intense population pressure and the deterioration of the soil: 35 per cent of the total number of these people (75,000 individuals out of 210,000) are involved in the exodus, which may be temporary or permanent. One group is moving towards the west of the territory and the Gold Coast; another is going to the centre—the Sokodé and Atakpamé area—where they are settling as farmers on lands ceded to them by the original owners (the Ana and the Kpessi). Rural settlements have also been organized recently by the Administration and the education of these new emigrant communities had to be considered.

The education and development of these emigrant groups were complicated by the fact that, in the areas where the migration was unorganized, certain spontaneously-established forms of co-existence with the groups among whom they settled had to be respected. The situation was made more difficult by certain rules of customary property law in the zone colonized by the Administration, where land was reserved for the original population. The authorities had planned to settle the immigrants on agri-

African villagers line up in front of the mobile unit to be examined for sleeping sickness. (WHO.)



cultural allotments, each family receiving enough land for permanent settlement, and the first object of the educational campaign was to explain the practical value of this measure, necessary alike for the protection of the soil and the development of a properly organized, stable peasantry. In the neighbouring zone, however, where the immigrants had come of their own accord to cultivate the lands of the original inhabitants, they had adopted the latter's farming system, based on the *kopé* or farming village, a socio-economic-farm-and-family unit suited to the extensive farming practised by the native Ana and Kpessi. The Kabré and the Losso, who, in their own part of the country, practise intensive farming, adopt the extensive methods of the Ana and the Kpessi when they settle in the centre; the settlement of new immigrants on allotments therefore meant upsetting the established habits of which any educational programme should take account.

Furthermore, those who had migrated to the centre on their own account, before the government began settling peasant farmers on allotments, had established certain forms of co-existence with the owners of the land. They had, for instance, introduced a system of rent in kind and, in certain cases, even took part in the social and religious life of the indigenous population (especially by making offerings to their landlords' fetishes). Immigrants settled on allotments by the government naturally have different relations with the original inhabitants, even though the latter are still the owners of the land parcelled out by the authorities. The educational programme must also take into account these causes of tension and help to remove them, particularly by arranging for immigrants and original inhabitants to develop the area together, on equal terms, and by so organizing the new communities that tension—especially in the matter of the chiefdom—may be reduced to a minimum. The traditional structures of both the original population and the immigrants must also be respected. Of 120,000 inhabitants in the central Togoland area, more than 20,000 are immigrants from the north; any fundamental education programme for that area should therefore be adjusted to deal with this problem of relations between different ethnic groups living side by side. It was for this reason, also, that we undertook a study of the collective attitudes of these groups *inter se*, of the new structures to which they give rise, and of the means of integrating them into the community.

From the point of view set forth in the present study, however, other conclusions, of more general interest than mere directives for a regional fundamental education programme, can be drawn from this particular case. The study made of this specific instance of migration showed that it was only a particular case of a whole complex of facts, which are extremely important from the point of view of education and

community development, i.e. the new relationships between communities and between different ethnic groups.

It would have been possible, in central Togoland, to plan a community education programme proper, adapted to strictly local characteristics and needs, such as those of the small groups of immigrants gathered into villages, and those of the original inhabitants' villages, both types being considered as actually or potentially self-sufficient units. But such a conception of fundamental education is too narrow, in our opinion, and the study of the situations existing at the regional and territorial level has led us to abandon it.

In the Cameroons, the study of the structure of Eton rural communities in the Yaoundé region, even though these communities are ethnically homogeneous, had already shown us the complexity of the relations existing among these local groups, and between them and the broader environment—i.e. the whole society (region, territory, or even federation)—of which they formed a part.¹ Thirty-five per cent of the male inhabitants of an Eton canton work, or have worked, for several years in the urban and industrial zone of Edoa-Douala; regular relations (visits, presents, letters, money-orders) have thus been established between the village and the outside world. This interdependence is particularly evident in the economic sphere; African producers have now taken their place in the world market, and the economic and social development of communities of cacao planters, for instance, are affected by fluctuations in the world price. The formerly self-sufficient economy of family and village groups has become an open economy, and complex native channels of trade in local produce are developing and extending, often to great distances. Any fundamental education programme suitable for extension to a large area like the cacao country of the southern Cameroons and northern Gabon must therefore be adjusted to this general widening of horizons. Consequently, we recommended that, prior to any large-scale fundamental education campaign, there should be an interdisciplinary regional planning study of the area-study type, in order to help the teachers to gain a better understanding of the general context of their task and the complexity of the social and cultural setting in which they would have to work.

SOCIAL INTEGRATION AND CHANGE OF SCALE

We reached the same conclusion as the result of a study of a community development programme in central Togoland. This inquiry was based on the investigations, outlined above, into migration and the relations between ethnic groups. This preliminary work shows the gravity and urgency of the processes by which local communities are integrated into their regional and national environment; in the zone studied, it was found that the only possible object of a fundamental education campaign must be that of achieving harmonious symbiosis and development of local communities and ethnic groups, which must complement one another within the regional framework. The villages inhabited by Kabré emigrants in central Togoland are complementary to those in their country of origin, to which they send food and presents (imported goods or money). Any educational work among groups of emigrants which involves a fairly large number of people will have economic and psycho-social repercussions on groups in the country of origin; other repercussions may be expected among the original inhabitants living side by side with the immigrants.

The broadening of fundamental education aims is an inevitable consequence of these new relations among small groups; fundamental education, while taking due account of strictly local needs and possibilities, must enable these groups to be rapidly integrated into larger units. In this connexion, social scientists should explain to fundamental education workers that they should not concentrate exclusively on the local community idea. A planter in the Cameroons belongs to many different kinds of group;

1. Cf. J.-C. Pauvert, *Communautés Eton du Pays Yaoundé*, Rapport à l'Office de la Recherche Scientifique et Technique Outre-Mer, 1955.

not only to his family, village or clan, but also to the body of cacao producers, a political party, a trade union, a social and economic stratum. It would be a mistake to regard the community, defined spatially as a group of the village or canton type, as being the only frame within which educational action—i.e. economic and social development—can go forward. The object of adult education, like that of child education, is to resolve the conflicts, tensions and frustrations which hamper the individual's full development; due account must therefore be taken of the individual's manifold attachments, of all the roles he plays and of all the motivations and groupings related to them. Not only must the problems raised by small communities be faced, but also those created by the need for all those communities to live side by side within regional complexes and the national community.

The investigations carried out in Gabon, the Cameroons and Togoland have thus led us to recommend the preparation of regional fundamental education schemes closely linked with the technical assistance programmes drawn up by the Ministry for France Overseas under the second four-year plan. The completion of these projects will entail investigations into the ways in which local communities are now being integrated into their environment. Large-scale statistical surveys are being prepared for this purpose, dealing with demography and with social and economic organization (standards of living, production, consumption, channels of distribution).

It has become evident that, if fundamental education is to be effective (i.e. to reach a large population), it must be associated with a general policy; that is to say, it must be adapted to the process of change of scale which affects all rapidly-developing societies, and to which social scientists have been giving special emphasis in recent years. Two essential sociological factors must accordingly be taken into account: one of these, of course, is the concept of the functional unity of the local community; but there is also the concept of the interdependence of these small groups within larger units—i.e. whole societies. The social sciences can make it possible to clarify these two concepts and, in particular, to bring out the characteristics of the destructure and restructure phenomena affecting local communities (e.g. break-up of the tribe and formation of specific groups, as revealed by public opinion surveys; change in the forms of social control; emergence of professional associations and social classes; migration). In Togoland, for instance, the programme prepared for the centre of the territory naturally includes limited local action (establishment of community centres, use of village leaders); but the work of these local centres is planned in relation to the problems arising out of their participation in broader economic, social and political units—problems which are the subject of sociological and psycho-sociological research.¹

Only when a policy of economic and social development has been defined can fundamental education play its part as a system of teaching techniques. Some of the obstacles to the development of fundamental education have been due to the idea that it should, at the small-community level, provide a solution to problems of development which can be solved only within the framework of society as a whole.

Apart from the help they can give in perfecting the methods and techniques of fundamental education, the social sciences can now assist, above all, in making that education more general, by drawing attention to this necessary change in scale and its many complex aspects.

1. On this subject, mention may be made of the results of certain investigations—in particular, those on 'Political and Social Factors in Rural Rehabilitation in Tropical and Sub-tropical Countries' (twenty-eighth session of International Institute of Differing Civilizations (INCIDI), The Hague, September 1953); cf. the account given in the *International Social Science Bulletin*, Vol. VI, No. 1, 1954, pp. 91-3: '... stress was laid on the importance of the human factor, ... the conduct of preliminary scientific investigations in co-operation with the political representatives of the countries concerned, and the risk that rural development may benefit a minority only rather than produce conditions which provide a satisfactory life for the whole population'.

THE POSSIBILITIES OF QUANTITATIVE MEASUREMENT OF PROGRESS IN COMMUNITY PROJECTS

STEN WAHLUND

The cultural, social and economic activities which are carried on by many agencies are largely at the pioneering stage. In certain cases outstanding results are achieved, in others only failure. But we very seldom take time to analyse, more systematically, why one project is successful and the other not. A failure can be profitable, too, if we learn how to avoid it the next time. But too often the same mistake is repeated over and over again. It should be obvious that we need 'evaluation', that is, an organization for determining how projects and activities are progressing, for recognizing the relative merits and defects of given programmes and methods, and for providing material for continuous improvement of the work, deciding priorities, etc.

It is also obvious that occasional visits made by members of a headquarters to the projects are not sufficiently effective. The experience of a few days must be limited, especially if the visit is considered—justly or unjustly—by the field workers as an inspection.

It may be said that each field worker necessarily 'evaluates' his own job from day to day, from month to month, and from year to year. He makes observations and adds them up in his memory; the result is what we call 'experience'. But this experience often gets lost. For reasons we will not discuss here, there is a great shifting of field workers. When they leave, their experience leaves with them.

Again, we could say, the field worker has been obliged to report periodically upon his work. These reports are certainly useful, and furnish today the main material for evaluation. But, they cannot provide a fool-proof basis. A good field worker may be a bad writer, a bad field worker may be a good writer. These reports, mostly in narrative form, may be more or less accurate, but seldom can be totally unbiased. All of us find it difficult to be objective about our own work.

The field worker certainly does not consider evaluation to be one of his more important tasks, even if he is aware of the need of making it possible for other people to learn from his own successes or mistakes. Facts may be overlooked, over-estimated or misinterpreted.

When the project worker has to render an account of his 'experience' in the field (as is the case of a visiting 'evaluator'), it will as a rule be expressed in qualitative terms, such as 'successful', 'promising', 'encouraging', 'failed', etc. It is impossible for persons other than the insider to know the precise content of such judgments.

This is the crux of the evaluation problem. How can we set up effective communication between the field worker, in his favourable position close to the facts, and other persons who have to learn when and how to make the necessary decisions? How can opinions be replaced by facts in this communication? How can we use a language which everybody will understand in the same way?

A solution of this problem is to use statistical evaluation, and attempt to stick to facts that can be enumerated. Such facts may not always seem to be the most 'interesting', but at least they are precise. They can be used for comparisons within and between projects. But though we stick to tangible facts, we should not forget that important intangible items may still remain. We shall discuss that point later.

No evaluation is possible without thorough operational planning. One must have clearly in mind the different phases of the project activity. If it is a fundamental or adult education project, then we must have a concrete understanding of how to change the behaviour of the people; we must ourselves see clearly the desirable effect of the

education, which, as a rule, involves statistically measurable 'action' from those who are taught; we must be able to define the ultimate goal of the educational efforts.

If such important—but sometimes neglected—steps have been taken, then it is possible to define the objective of the evaluation work. It will be easy to make a list of evaluation criteria, i.e. of evidence which is expected to result from the project activity. This list will certainly be very long and, for practical reasons, it is necessary to reduce it. When selecting suitable evaluation data, one must look not only for what is 'important', but also for what is easily measurable.

Much more substantial evaluation criteria should, at least in part, replace the commonly used statistics in the ordinary progress reports relating to the units of the field worker's daily job: how many persons were taught; on how many occasions; how many farm-home visits; the number of meetings; the number of participating villagers, divided, for example, according to sex and age; how many leaflets were distributed, and so on. It goes without saying that such criteria are not very suitable for evaluation purposes. Carefully drawn up and 'good' statistics of such routine duties do not necessarily imply good results; sometimes quite the opposite.

A better method of evaluation at this level is to test the people's attitude towards the project and its staff, their knowledge about the project, their co-operation, for example, in terms of their contribution in labour and land.

The first task of evaluation is—as much as possible through the use of exact statistical measurements—to answer the 'whats' and the 'hows'. What is the attitude and co-operation of the people of the project area? How are the resources of the project used for the achievement of the immediate objectives of programme operations? How far-reaching are the accomplishments? In comparison with the target? In comparison with the possible accomplishment, i.e. the maximum effect that can be obtained through the activity? How and how far have the accomplishments improved the conditions of the people?

The importance of the surveys will be still more obvious when the evaluator begins to ask 'why': Why has this activity failed? Why has that activity been a success? When trying to answer such questions, due consideration must of course be given to the conditions in which the activity has been applied.

Let us demonstrate by a simple example how statistical evaluation works. A project activity has as its goal to teach the village people how to use improved seed. When evaluating the immediate effect of the education, the best criterion is doubtless the number of units (e.g. holdings) where the educational advice is adopted. The number of those adopting the new seed during a year is considered in relation to the number of those who have made use of it since the beginning of the activity; both groups can then be related to the total number growing that particular crop.

The evaluation may also be based on data concerning the quantities of improved (recommended) and non-improved seed sown; the areas where improved and non-improved seed is grown, and similar items. In the second case, the evaluation criterion is very close to the 'money benefit' of the activity. One generally knows the normal increase in yield of the improved variety compared with that of non-improved seed. Knowing the value of this increase at current prices, one can then estimate the benefit on a monetary basis ('normal' increase is often a better measure than 'actual' increase, which is influenced by weather conditions).

As soon as one is able to attach the benefits of an activity, or part of these benefits, to a reasonable money value, one must do so. The benefits, the 'output', may then be compared with the activity costs, the 'input'. The output-input ratio will be a very useful evaluation measure, providing a basis for comparing different activities within a project or between various projects.

In some branches of fundamental and adult education it is possible to express output-benefit in monetary terms; in other branches it is not. If, for example, a literacy campaign has been a success, one can prove it by tests, but one cannot convert the

benefit into money. Or take hygiene and health. Here improvements may be enumerated in various ways; for instance, by statistics showing a decrease of working days lost through illness, which perhaps can be converted into monetary terms, using current wages. Such a procedure will not, of course furnish a suitable expression of the value of improvement. If the mortality decreases in a given area, one can quantify it; but one cannot reasonably calculate the money value of a human life.

Occasionally the benefits appear in a way that, *a priori*, seems far from the goal of the project activity. The author saw an illustration of this when trying to select type examples of evaluation methods. In a South Indian health centre the housing problem of the *harijans* (depressed classes) was taken up, primarily to improve hygienic conditions. These people were taught how to burn bricks, how to erect a building, and their dwellings were radically improved without any large subsidies. In their new environment they showed an entirely different behaviour; from being backward members of the community, they became open-minded and progressive. This very soon resulted in an improvement in their whole way of living. Thus the main benefit could not be measured by housing statistics.

The substantial 'output' of an activity often does not lie in the 'accomplishment' or 'benefit' stage, but in the 'impact' stage.

Fundamental and adult education 'aims at giving the minimum knowledge which is necessary for uneducated people to improve their condition of life within the environment in which they live'. When the term 'condition of life'—so often used in definitions—refers only to the economic means of livelihood, the output-benefit can generally be expressed in monetary terms; i.e. when the purpose of an activity is to teach people how to obtain more by their daily work. But 'conditions of life' also include food and diet, hygiene and health, employment and security, educational and recreational facilities, co-operation and community spirit—in fact 'everything'.

An 'ideal' scheme of evaluation includes all-round surveys of people's 'conditions of life'. Tests of changes in knowledge, thinking attitude, manual skill, well-being, and so on, are here possible; the food, not only in quantity, but also in quality, will be an important index of poor people's status; and further quantitative information can be gathered about how people are spending their time in the fields, in their homes, in their social and religious life, etc.

Such surveys can be made at the beginning of the project (pre-campaign survey) for the immediate purpose of programme planning (assessments of needs, decisions as to which activities should receive priorities). Since this work has to be done, it may as well be done systematically. Part of this survey should be repeated in order to check progress, for example, when the agency is leaving the project; when the project activity is finished; perhaps some years afterwards to see if the results have been maintained.

Are such comprehensive surveys likely to be too expensive? If we use small samples, I think they will not cost substantially more than the ordinary subjective observational-descriptive reports.

There is no need here to describe the methods of collection, tabulation and analysis of data for evaluation purposes. On the whole, the procedures employed are the same as those in other spheres of statistical observation. However, we can discuss who should do what in evaluation statistics. Here questions arise concerning the ability of field workers to collect the primary data; how far they can be entrusted with tabulation work, and who should be given the responsibility of planning surveys and of analysing results.

It is often advocated that it should be possible to transfer the whole matter of producing evaluation statistics to the projects 'without extra expense'. Certainly this would involve no great immediate and visible increase of expense in the budget. However, one consequence would be that project personnel would be taken away from work for which they were trained and put into jobs for which they had received no training.

It seems obvious that the planning of evaluation statistics must be made at headquarters. Such centralization is necessary so that methods may be uniform and data comparable between projects. In fundamental and adult education the subjects are multifarious, not so the procedures for evaluating them. Headquarters will quickly compile forms, schedules, instructions, etc., applicable in different situations, perhaps after some modifications. This material should be devised in such a manner that a field worker without statistical training will be able to collect the primary data.

But it is not advisable to burden project workers with too much statistical work. Their attitude is quite comprehensible: 'We are here to teach and help suffering people, not to collect statistics.' In the case of the more elaborate surveys, the collection of material in the field generally must be entrusted to specially appointed enumerators.

The planning of statistics is the job of an expert, trained to consider the mathematical and practical side of a matter. His considerations may be difficult to follow for a person untrained in statistics, but his methods should be simple enough for the field worker collecting the data to handle them in practice.

If a person without statistical training has to do this kind of work, he will no doubt perform the investigations in an unpractical manner (e.g. too large samples). The consequences will be just what one has been trying to avoid—extra expense.

The more difficult tabulation work should be done at headquarters, to which the prime material should be sent. There staff and mechanical resources must be available for preparation of data, and for the analysis of results.

The staff for preparing evaluation data may be small to begin with, but should be adequate to handle the work. Obviously, it is very important to have the prepared evaluation facts available as soon as possible. If anything is going wrong, one should know it at an early date, in order to make arrangements and change plans. If something is developing well, it is also useful to know about it as soon as possible; there may be things in it that are worth introducing into other projects.

In this way, there can be open and effective communication between projects and headquarters. In this way, and only in this way, will one get a safe and rational basis for programme planning.

EVALUATION IN FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

G. E. R. BURROUGHS

I must start by saying that I am an educationist, with something of a statistical bias, who was trained as a scientist. As such I have a considerable respect both for the aims and efforts of fundamental educationists and for measurement; yet I am increasingly of the opinion that the present enthusiasm for measurement in fundamental education is misplaced. I base this opinion on the operation of fundamental education in the field as I have seen it, on a consideration of the nature both of education and of the evaluative process and on observation of the general cultural background against which fundamental education projects operate.

From one's reading of the situation little was thought or written of evaluation when the Unesco Fundamental Education programme was conceived in the flush of post-war enthusiasm. At that stage the emphasis was, rightly, on getting on with the job of helping the under-privileged and underdeveloped communities of the world. Early in the 1950s a certain reaction set in. On the one hand, Member States for various

reasons, mainly economic, began to inquire whether the monies they were contributing were being wisely spent; on the other hand, certain educationists and others began to query whether the present organization of fundamental education was meeting the needs which had initially been seen and whether its emphasis was in the right direction. Two shrewd articles in this journal by Batten¹ and Rodriguez Bou² voiced the doubts that some people entertained. In consequence more and more thought was given to the methods which might be used to find, as objectively as possible, what in fact was being achieved, and evaluation became a major topic of interest and investigation in this field as it was already becoming in others.

This reaction, which is natural, is also appropriate to many of the operations which the United Nations agencies undertake. It is natural and appropriate to evaluate the work of a saltmine adviser in terms of the change of output of salt or of a rice production team in terms of the yield of rice, though even here evaluation is beset with numerous practical difficulties of which those who ask for it are not always aware. Evaluation may also be appropriate to certain aspects of fundamental education. But to fundamental education as a whole, and in its significant effects on the lives of individuals, it is doubtful whether it is appropriate and it certainly seems to be inappropriate at its present stage of development.

It needs constantly to be emphasized that the operative word in fundamental education is education. This is not emphasized in any holier-than-thou attitude nor in an attempt to shield it from criticism by taking up a position in a metaphysical mist. There are, however, certain features of education which cannot be ignored. If evaluation is pressed too hard there is a danger that they will be ignored and that the emphasis in fundamental education will shift too far towards the tangible and material, that the concern will be for quick results, as Batten fears, or for window-dressing and publicity, as Bou fears. The first feature of education which needs to be stressed is that it is not primarily concerned with material matters but with mental and moral development and with values and attitudes. It is concerned to develop for each individual a viewpoint, both critical and appreciative, which will allow him to live at peace with himself, sympathetically with his community and without fear in his natural environment. It is this concern for individuals and lack of concern with the concrete which makes evaluation in education so difficult. The second feature of education to which one would draw attention is its slow rate of growth. It is slow in acceptance, it is slow in its effects upon individuals and it is slow in the manner in which these effects are disseminated among the whole community. This is painfully obvious even in the technically advanced countries which have no need of fundamental education in the Unesco sense, where the whole community has at some time been through school and where eight to ten years is the minimum period set aside in a person's life for this purpose. How can it be otherwise in the underdeveloped areas where fundamental education operates, where many of the older generation have had to pick up such education as experience alone provides and where the contact between the people and the educational agency is informal and sporadic? Yet the regional fundamental education centres in Mexico and Egypt, which we may regard as representing the major Unesco effort in this domain, have been in operation for some five or six years at the most. On these two grounds, therefore, that fundamental education needs to be given much more time than it has yet had before it can be expected to have much effect, and that there is a danger that under the pressure of evaluation the wrong things will become the important things, I repeat my opinion that evaluation in fundamental education ought not yet to be pressed too firmly.

1. T. R. Batten, 'On Reconsidering Fundamental Education', *Fundamental and Adult Education*, Vol. IV, No. 3, July 1952.
2. I. Rodriguez Bou, 'Some Observations on Fundamental Education Campaigns', *Fundamental and Adult Education*, Vol. V, No. 2, April 1953.

It will be seen that I have not adduced as a reason for avoiding an early incursion into evaluative procedures the technical difficulties of carrying them out. These are certainly very great but, as I shall indicate later, we can and ought to make some attempt to overcome them. Whether we shall ever be masters of the techniques with which we can measure human thought and behaviour is doubtful. We can, however, well afford to spend time and money in exploratory studies in this direction provided that their exploratory nature is recognized and that the results are not used during these early stages as a measure of fundamental education success or failure.

It may be objected by some that a rather rigid definition of the world evaluation has been assumed. Such an assumption has not been made blindly. It has been made because I believe we need to introduce discipline into the thinking that surrounds the use of the term. Evaluation does not mean assessing or judging or estimating or guessing; it means measuring. In this particular case it means the measurement of the change brought about in the community by the fundamental education project, that measurement being taken from a base line, i.e. initial status or status at some earlier period, and against some norm such as the change observed in a comparable community where the project is not operating. In this sense evaluation is neither easy nor cheap. It requires the services of experts versed in its disciplines, who are given time and facilities to carry it out. In some circles these facts are forgotten and evaluation is thought of as something that can be done by the layman or, what is worse, can be done by reading between the lines of reports, letters, minutes of meetings and so on which have been submitted by project personnel some thousands of miles away. If this form of evaluation meets the needs of those asking for it then, of course, there is no difficulty in carrying it out, but it would be better to use a term other than evaluation when referring to it, and it would be well constantly to remind oneself of the limitations of the system. Ego-involvement in the project both of the reporting staff and of the government through whose hands the reports are passed must necessarily distort the picture which is presented.

Evaluation, in its proper sense, means measuring—as far as we have the techniques—certain phenomena or indicators of progress—as far as they have been ascertained—in carefully and appropriately selected samples of the community, the resultant data being analysed by those competent to do so in such a way that a valid conclusion may be drawn. In this sense evaluation has been successfully applied in many limited fields in the social sciences, biological sciences, economics and so on and it has been applied also to certain very limited problems in education. It has not, to my knowledge, been applied to estimate the contribution made to community development by any one school nor even by a whole educational system even in the more technically developed countries. There would seem to be no valid reason why it should be applied to centres of such limited influence as fundamental education projects. For, admire them in conception and achievement as one may, they are, as yet, of limited influence. They are few in number, work in limited areas even in the country of their location, work on budgets which are not only limited but which are likely to vary erratically from year to year, are set in geographical conditions which are often as trying to the national staffs who are more used to them as to the international staffs who are not, and who have only limited experience of the working methods to adopt. With such limits and difficulties their influence may possibly begin to emerge in a generation and it is in such terms that evaluation should be conceived.

In the meantime it is not to be supposed that fundamental education projects should be allowed to develop in isolation and without a measure of external advice and control. With the limitations and provisos implicit in the earlier argument we may envisage the growth of a system which will allow of periodical assessment. This may be thought of in three stages. The first stage may be considered as a consolidation and extension of the basic survey procedures adopted in most fundamental education projects. These are rightly accepted as of first importance when planning and effecting any programme of cultural change and a deal has been written about them both in this journal and

elsewhere. The article by Anzola Gómez¹ is a recent example. These surveys are broadly socio-anthropological rather than educational and the material collected in them is not in itself suitable for evaluation purposes. They necessarily provide a general picture containing much information not needed for assessment and not always collected in a manner which permits of the subsequent statistical analysis that would be needed for evaluation. Nevertheless, if properly guided and supervised, they serve their own purposes and also give experience to personnel in the field in methods of controlled observation. They encourage them to observe phenomena and collect data in an objective manner, on which basis they may later develop a system of cumulative record cards. I use this term to denote a record system in which is regularly noted, under various headings, the visits made, action taken, effects observed, the wells dug, books borrowed, tomatoes planted, and so on. These records one would expect to be maintained on a day-to-day basis; they correspond to the medical man's records, the laboratory notebook and the ship's log. Many projects do, of course, already maintain some such records. What is needed immediately is a bringing together of experience from all the fundamental education projects and the establishment of a system which is as uniform as circumstances will permit and which can be put into operation without delay. This stage should be regarded not only as important for assessment but also as an essential part of the routine working of any project.

The second phase in evaluation might be the establishment of *ad hoc* advisory/assessing teams. It would seem to be desirable to build up to a maximum extent the personal contact between the fundamental education centres and the United Nations agencies which allocate personnel to them both so that the centres may benefit from the advice that the agency experts can bring and the agencies, in turn, may acquire detailed first-hand information of the work that is being carried out in this field. This cannot be done on a whistle stop basis. I envisage a team, of fairly constant composition, made up of perhaps four or five people drawn from the higher ranks of Unesco, WHO, FAO and ILO and, perhaps, one external institution, visiting each of the projects in turn.² This team would stay long enough with each project to get the feel of the place; three or four weeks, perhaps. During this period their first function would be to inspire and invigorate, their second to advise—and the composite nature of the team might allow the sponsoring agencies to speak harmoniously in such matters—and their third to assess. This third task would be done by making a close study of the work at the centres, by getting out to the villages where the essential work of fundamental education is carried out and by making a careful survey, against the observed background, of the cumulative records built by the project personnel. Any centre might expect to be thus visited every two or three years. This team approach provides a system of assessment which has several advantages. First, it is primarily creative rather than analytic; as assessment is not an end in itself, this creative advisory function needs to be kept in the forefront of our thinking. Secondly, the members of the team are not so ego-involved in the project as to feel impelled to build up too rosy a picture, yet they have sufficient responsibility for its working to avoid theoretical speculation and impracticable recommendations. Thirdly, the method avoids the undue disturbance of the work which a large-scale statistically based evaluation would seem to make inevitable. Finally, it is based on the thesis, real though often forgotten, that all evaluation ultimately depends on human judgment.

1. G. Anzola Gómez, 'Some Notes on a Fundamental Education Survey: An Experiment in CREFAL', *Fundamental and Adult Education*, Vol. VII, No. 4, October 1955 and Vol. VIII, No. 1, January 1956.
2. After this had been written a note appeared in the *Unesco Chronicle* of April 1956 that such a team had recently visited the regional training centres, CREFAL and ASFEC, in Mexico and Egypt. Its purpose was described as 'Appraisal of the Work of Fundamental Education Centres'. The inter-agency composition of the team and the modesty of the word 'appraisal' are most pleasing, though the time spent in each centre appears to have been rather short.

As a third phase one would advocate the creation of a small research unit, free of other responsibilities, whose purpose would be to make a careful study of the principal indicators of progress in fundamental education and into the methods of estimating them. Margaret Read¹ speaks of the dilemma of the present-day social anthropologist who cannot carry out essential fundamental research on which to base a programme of culture change because of the insistent and urgent demand for action. In the field of education the change is, perhaps fortunately, rather slow and such a research team as proposed might consequently be able to carry out work of basic importance. This could help to solve the 'action-before-thought' dilemma and also provide provisional results on which an assessment/advisory team could check its own work. It will be clear from what has already been written that such a research unit should include at least one person from the field of education.

What the parameters of progress would be on which, ultimately, to base an assessment of effectiveness in this field is a matter largely for speculation at this stage. These speculations would occupy more space than is available here. Some would doubtless be of an economic and material nature, though those which have been proposed in such publications as the United Nations *Report on International Definition and Measurement of Standards and Levels of Living*² seem to be on too high a level and too insensitive for our purpose. Their use would presuppose a degree of influence for fundamental education projects which is quite unrealistic. Other indicators would probably be in the field of literacy and knowledge though by now the dangers of accepting such evidence alone is well-known. The significant ones would almost certainly be associated with attitudes, judgments and values. Terrisse³ speaks of 'the profound and incalculable effect of fundamental education on the individual himself'. It is in this penumbra that the evaluator must grope.

SOME RECENT ADVANCES IN UNDERSTANDING GROUP LIFE

RONALD LIPPITT

During the past 10 years there has been a great acceleration of scientific interest in the small face-to-face group as an object of study. This interest has arisen at many points in the scientific community. Research workers with a sociological and anthropological orientation have become increasingly interested in the small group as an important unit of social organization, and of the community. By studying the community as a social system made up of a population of dynamic or relatively passive group units, it is possible to achieve much significant insight into the behaviour of individuals in community and organizational settings, and to get a much clearer picture of the total ebb and flow of organizational and community life.

On the other hand, those members of the scientific community who have a special interest in understanding the dynamics of individual behaviour have found it more and more necessary and fruitful to study personality development and individual behaviour

1. Margaret Read, 'The Contribution of Social Anthropologists to Educational Problems in Underdeveloped Territories', *Fundamental and Adult Education*, Vol. VII, No. 2, April 1955 and Vol. VII, No. 3, July 1955.
2. United Nations, 1954 (E/CN. 3/179).
3. A. Terrisse, 'The Human Aspect of Fundamental Education', *Fundamental and Adult Education*, Vol. V, No. 4, October 1953.

in the context of the small group and its influence on the individual members of the group.

In between the students of personality and the students of community, there is the rapidly growing number of social psychologists who have a special interest in studying the phenomena of inter-personal interaction, in understanding the behaviour of groups as their special focus of study. The field of scientific group dynamics is a sub-part of the broader field of social psychology. Two recent books attempt to summarize and systematize to some degree the growing field of knowledge about the group.¹

Adult educators have, of course, long been involved in building a cumulative body of practical information about working with groups. So have the workers in many other professional fields such as social group work, public health, industrial personnel work, professional political leaders, and public administrators. But the 'rule of thumb' accumulation of knowledge, built from one concrete situation to another, without the helpful theoretical perspective of analysis across many types of situations, is a relatively slow process of learning. There is ample evidence that this process can be accelerated by a more active collaboration between the professional practitioner and the scientific worker. Today it is impressive to note the amount of active interest of a wide variety of professional workers in exploring the applications of new scientific findings about group life to their own particular field of professional activity. Many problems come up in this effort to apply new theoretical understandings about group life to particular activities such as adult education. Some professional workers seem to experience keen disappointment on finding that their most important operating problems have not been 'solved'. They find it difficult to communicate with research workers who have not taken any value position about what is 'good' or 'bad' about group functioning. They feel disappointment on finding the research workers so cautious about relating their generalizations to a particular operating problem in a specific adult education situation. Other adult educators have expressed great excitement at the insight they feel they have derived from thoughtful review of some of the current research into the social psychology of groups.

The application of research findings to adult education settings is slowly developing in a number of ways. Many social scientists also have an active interest in adult education and are attempting to think through the applications in their own professional work. An example of this is the recent book by Thelen.² Another encouraging development is the increasing number of professional meetings of adult educators where social scientists are invited to present research findings and to participate in discussions about the possible relevance of the findings to adult education practice. The third important trend is the development of research centres where the major focus is on 'application research'. These research centres, some within professional schools such as social work and education, are testing out experimentally ideas about improvement of professional practice based on factors which have been revealed as significant in more fundamental research.

THE INDIVIDUAL AND THE GROUP

In this brief article it is of course impossible to summarize the large and varied volume of researches on group life which have implications for various aspects of fundamental adult education. Therefore let me focus on just one area where it seems to me there is a

1. Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander (eds.), *Group Dynamics Research and Theory*, Evanston Ill., Row, Peterson, 1953; A. P. Hare, E. F. Borgotta and R. F. Bales, *Small Group Studies in Social Interaction*, New York, Alfred Knopf, 1955. See also G. Lindzey (ed.), *Handbook of Social Psychology*, Vol. VII, Part 5, 'Group Psychology and Phenomena of Interaction', Cambridge, Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1954.
2. H. Thelen, *Dynamics of Groups at Work*, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1954.

considerable overlapping of interest of the basic researchers and the adult education practitioners. This is the area of group conformity pressures and individual creativity or variability needs. Some professional workers, and philosophers, express their anxiety about this problem by exclaiming that after all the individual is the only reality and the group is just an abstraction to which we are paying too much attention. The assumption is made frequently that individuals and groups must necessarily have incompatible interests. We need to examine this assumption and the problems involved. Let me suggest four assumptions about individuals and groups which are intended to challenge the belief that individuals and groups must necessarily have incompatible or compatible interests.

First, groups exist, and are inevitable. There is now a great wealth of research whose findings can only be interpreted meaningfully by assuming the reality of groups. Also, the difference it makes whether a person belongs to one group or another is demonstrated in a thousand ways in everyday life. The research on early development demonstrates what a great difference it makes whether infants are born into one type of group or another. Research on work groups in industry reveals many dramatic examples of the fact that groups develop norms for the behaviour of their members which result in good group members adopting the norms as their personal values. There is also striking research evidence that participation by members in group decisions produces changes in individual behaviour much greater than those customarily found to result from attempts to modify the behaviour of individuals as isolated persons. Most educators can describe rather vividly examples of the ways in which certain classes develop unique characteristics which are quite different from those of any other class they have taught previously.

Second, it seems safe to assert that groups mobilize powerful forces which produce effects of the utmost importance to individuals. Take, for example, the analysis of 228 work groups by Seashore, where he developed an index of group cohesion and compared the workers who were members of high and low cohesive groups. Here is one of his major findings: 'Members of high cohesive groups exhibit less anxiety than members of low cohesive groups, using as measures of anxiety (a) feeling "jumpy" or "nervous"; (b) feeling under pressure to achieve higher productivity (with actual productivity held constant); and (c) feeling lack of support from the company.' Seashore suggests two reasons for the relation between group cohesiveness and individual anxiety: '(1) that the cohesive group provides effective support for the individual in his encounters with anxiety-providing aspects of his environment, thus allaying anxiety, and (2) that group membership offers direct satisfaction, and this satisfaction in membership has a generalized effect of anxiety reduction.' Other researchers reveal the important impact of the classroom group on whether the members of the group focus their energy and interest on learning the content provided by the educational programme or focus primarily on problems of competitive status struggle or on finding ways to reject the relationship with the teacher.

A third assertion is that groups may produce both good and bad consequences. Some professional workers tend to view researches on group life as proving that groups tend to produce 'bad effects' on the individuals who make up the groups. Other workers tend to take the equally one-sided and incorrect point of view that 'groups are good' and have positive effects on the growth and development of individuals. Those workers who have tended to focus on the 'factors of group life producing conformity' have tended to neglect any focus on the 'factors of group life producing non-conformity'. This tendency to focus on the 'pathology of group life' or on the 'utopia of group life' is a serious obstacle to presenting thoughtful and valid applications of research data and of the theoretical insight which is emerging from the great volume of research activity.

A fourth assertion is that a more correct scientific understanding of group dynamics on the part of professional practitioners increases the possibility that desirable consequences from group activity can be deliberately enhanced. With a knowledge of the

processes of interaction in groups, classroom activities can be made to serve basic objectives more effectively, for knowledge gives power—power to modify human beings and human behaviour. The problem of how this power will be used for constructive democratic ends is a problem of value-development and value-application by the professional worker.

INDIVIDUALITY AND GROUP CONFORMITY

A review of quite a body of current research would seem to suggest that in the application of the findings on conformity to educational practice we face a dilemma: it seems clear that the individual needs social support for his values and his social beliefs. He needs to be accepted as a valued member of groups which he values. Failure to attain or to maintain satisfactory group memberships produces anxiety and acute processes of personal disorganization. On the other hand, group membership and group participation tend to cost the individual some of his individuality. If he is to receive support from others through membership, he and they must hold in common certain values and beliefs, and deviation from these undermines the possibility of the member receiving group support and acceptance. Faced with this dilemma, some professional workers have asked whether it is not better to prevent the development of strong cohesive group units in their adult education activities so that there will be more chance for the individual to grow and develop in the direction of his own unique potentialities. Most of these workers are uncomfortably aware, however, of evidence that individuals, in the group learning situation, find it necessary to focus a great deal of attention and energy on the development of their relationships with the group (unless this process is facilitated by the teacher) and that this focus of energy can greatly hamper involvement in the planned learning activities. Let us try to review this dilemma somewhat more carefully, in view of some of the knowledge emerging from current research.

First, we need to recognize that conformity pressures from the group are not necessarily pressures toward uniformity. For example, there are groups where the group places a high value upon 'being different' and not only tolerates but supports individuality of behaviour pattern. The more cohesive the group holding these values the more we would expect the individuals to express individuality because of their conformity to the value of the group. Several experienced adult educators have expressed the opinion, on the basis of observation, that frequently an adult education class goes through a stage of group development where all members of the group are rather cautious in their relationships with each other and quite anxious to conform to the expectations of others and where there seems to be a considerable pressure toward uniformity of thinking and behaviour. But as the group develops into a more mature and cohesive one with stronger emotional ties between the members a phase is reached where there is strong support for individuality of opinions and of contributions to the group.

Another different source of heterogeneity of member behaviour has been suggested by a recent study where the experimenters reasoned that the more an individual feels accepted by the other group members the more ready he should be to deviate from the beliefs of the majority under conditions where deviation would be in the group's best interests. The first experiments along this line tend to support the hypothesis.

A third line of investigation has shown that there is less group-wide pressure toward uniformity of opinion when the members of the group perceive that the group is composed of members with widely different interests and knowledge. Under these conditions sub-groups easily develop with a resultant heterogeneity within the group as a whole, although there may be considerable uniformity within each sub-group.

Another very important source of heterogeneity within the group arises from the division of labour or the differentiation of functions or roles within the group. The

group expectations for living up to various responsibilities or roles produce heterogeneity within the group.

Now let us turn our attention briefly to the individual. From the point of view of social psychology, the first important fact we must note is that most individuals belong to several groups and have belonged to a great many more in the past. In one of our current research projects we are finding that older adolescents can name from twenty to forty important groups and persons that influence their opinions and behaviour in decision situations.

Some of the scientists who study personality development have suggested that the individual should be viewed as an 'internal society' made up of representations of diverse group relationships which the individual has had or now has. Each individual then has a unique internal society and a unique opportunity to make his own personal synthesis of the values and behaviour preferences generated by these affiliations. Because the individual has this unique opportunity to integrate his learnings and experiences from a variety of group memberships, we can see that in most group situations, such as an adult education class, the various members of the group tend to deviate from each other's points of view and expectations and from those of the adult education leader. In the forming of the new groups it is necessary for the leadership, and the group as a whole, to take measures to develop and preserve its own integrity by setting some limitations to the deviating tendencies of the members with their varied backgrounds and multiple loyalties. The deviation pressures coming from each member may, of course, be creative or destructive when viewed in terms of the goals and productivity of the current group. It is also true that the conformity pressures from the group may serve to disrupt or to support the interests of the individual.

We must conclude, then, that the development of cohesive group structures may have positive or negative effects on individual growth and development, and that the fact of multiple group memberships and the different resultant individualities may have positive or negative effects on the welfare and productivity of the group. There are great potentialities for the development of creative individuality through participation in cohesive group units, and there are great potentialities for group development and achievement in the fact that the members of any group have roots and loyalties in other groups with different orientations and standards.

Some of the basic information which the adult educator needs in order to develop and use the group situation more effectively as a part of the educational process is now available. The stockpile of knowledge will be greatly increased in the next few years by greatly accelerated research in this field of investigation. A growing number of practitioners in a variety of professional fields have begun to experiment with the new insight into group structure and group functioning, and they report very exciting results in terms of the release of creative potential of individuals, and the formation of significant groups that make a constructive difference in their organizations and communities. There would seem to be many challenging opportunities here for adult education.

APPLIED GROUP DYNAMICS

LELAND P. BRADFORD

With the increasing size and social complexities of the world, the growing interrelationships among nations, and the acceleration of social change throughout much of the world, the individual needs ways of relating himself to his ever-expanding society. If the individual is to help build or maintain a democratic society in which he is involved in making decisions, he must have access to membership of social units sufficiently small for him to interact with others. The group, for many people, is the bridge to the larger society. Basic individual needs for 'belongingness', respect, and liking from others are satisfied in the group situation.

We are members of many groups. We live in groups concerned with work productivity, in community groups dealing with problems of community improvement, in classes and discussion groups, where learning is the outcome, in trade union groups, in political and civic groups where issues are raised and decisions sought, and in social and recreational groups.

With the increase in the number of groups of which we are all members, there is a growing necessity for knowledge about the causes of group behaviour and about the ways in which groups can be improved so that the individual will be more involved and will grow more as an individual through more effective interaction with others in the group, and so that the group will become more productive in achieving its ends.

Group dynamics,¹ as a field in the social sciences, has been concerned in the past twenty years in studying problems of leadership, the effect of leader and member personalities on group behaviour, the emotional behaviour of groups, the causes and consequences of group cohesion, the cause and effect of inter-personal conflict among group members, the effect of group standards on group efficiency, and the effect of involvement of people on the problem of communication, personal satisfaction and individual and group productivity.

Applied group dynamics has been equally active during the past 10 years in developing programmes of leadership training in all areas of life, improving conferences, expanding insight into the behaviour of staffs and committees, developing improved methods of conducting large and small meetings, working with consultants and leaders in community development. Applied group dynamics is effective in such fields as industry, trade unions, government, the military, religion, adult education, health, and welfare.

Groups work on two types of problems or two levels of operation at all times. One type or level is the task problem facing the group. The other has variously been called the social-emotional task or the 'hidden agenda' level. This is the level of problems of relationships between members and emotional patterns within the group.

Every group, in other words, has problems of doing work and problems of maintaining itself in a working order.² Just as aeroplanes require maintenance crews as well as pilot crews, and automobiles need garages and mechanics, so do groups face problems of developing and maintaining good working conditions as well as problems directly related to the work task.

Good working conditions for a group mean not only that there be adequate discussion procedures, but that there be good relationships among members and that problems

1. Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander (eds.), *Group Dynamics, Research and Theory*, Evanston, Ill., Row, Peterson, 1953, 642 pp.

2. *Understanding how Groups work*, Chicago, Adult Education Association of the U.S.A., 1955, 48 pp. (*Leadership Pamphlet*, No. 4).

of inter-personal hostility, competition, or individual hidden purposes do not disrupt the smooth working of the group. Usually such social-emotional problems are not obvious. Leader and members seldom recognize the many forces that subtly but strongly sway the group. When they do sense that something is wrong, they blame erroneous reasons.

SOME BASIC CHARACTERISTICS OF GROUPS

On both the social-emotional and task levels, there are certain characteristics of groups which must be recognized by leaders and members. These characteristics provide ways of understanding a group. Some of these characteristics are briefly described.¹

Groups have *histories*, if not of the group as a whole, at least of the members composing it. Members belong and owe loyalties to other groups. Frequently these loyalties of members of the present group to some other group having different purposes create conflict within the individual and his groups.

Participation patterns vary from group to group. In some groups the pattern of dominance of the few becomes fixed, with resultant dependency, apathy, resentment and withdrawal upon the part of the many. Frequently, observation of who talks to whom and who talks after whom in a group uncovers participation patterns symptomatic of strong sub-groupings and cross-currents of relationships disturbing the group.

Communication patterns and practices largely determine group effectiveness. Are people really listening to each other or merely waiting until they can talk? Do contributions follow and build on each other or do they block previous contributions? Are people talking to the group, the leader, or certain group members?

How *cohesive* is the group? Is the group operating effectively or are individuals merely talking at cross purposes about differently perceived problems? Are there strong sub-groups?

Every group has an *atmosphere*. Some group atmospheres indicate formality, dominance by the leader or a few members, strongly operating power and status forces, or hesitation and fear upon the part of some members. Other atmospheres indicate a sense of relaxation and comfort, the freedom of everyone to participate, and a sense of co-operation.

Groups establish *standards* covering how people will participate, what achievement is expected, and how new members shall be treated. Group standards, usually unspoken, become strong forces in determining the way the group operates.

At the task level, the *procedures* used by the group in determining and clarifying its problems and goals, in gaining ideas and facts, in reaching and testing decisions, will differentiate the effective from the ineffective group. Most groups adopt procedures that are rigid and inappropriate to the problem or use no procedures and wander ineffectually around the problem.

The *leadership* style of the designated leader obviously has great impact upon the group, as does the emergence, or lack of it, of secondary leadership in the group. Does the leader control and dominate the group or help it organize itself for effective work?

Membership behaviour also exerts important forces on the group. At both the task and social-emotional level there are a variety of membership roles or of contributions to be made if the group is to function properly. The task level calls for idea contributor, clarifier, critic, compromiser, elaborator, summarizer. The social-emotional level calls for such contributions as encouraging, mediating, bridging between two contributions, relaxing tension, diagnosing group difficulties. Unless members make these contributions at the appropriate moment, the group falls short of achievement. Frequently,

1. Gordon L. Lippitt, 'How to get Results from a Group', *Office Executive*, January 1955.

such member contribution as aggressive behaviour, blocking, competing, seeking recognition, or withdrawing will serve to disrupt the group.

Members bring '*hidden agenda*' to any group. Unspoken purposes, feelings about others, reaction to leadership, and similar unavowed behaviour in the group serve as powerful influences in group action. Frequently groups cannot move successfully at the task level until the '*hidden agenda*' problems are solved. The more effective leaders and members recognize the existence of '*hidden agenda*' and seek to determine it and help the group treat it successfully.

The function of applied group dynamics, therefore, becomes basically that of teaching or training people in diagnostic skills and understanding the causes of group behaviour. It recognizes that the translation of group dynamics research into action will come best through training of leaders and members in appropriate understanding and skills. Group dynamics concerned with developing techniques and methods is applied only secondarily.

THE APPLICATION OF GROUP DYNAMICS

In the United States in particular, and increasingly in other parts of the world, application is being made of knowledge, concepts and skills growing out of group dynamics research in an ever-widening number of occupational fields. In adult education through improvements in discussion and teaching methods; in industry, in management development and supervisory training programmes in human relations; in national and local organizations through staff development and the training of volunteers; in religious groups in the retraining of clergy toward better leadership and involvement of their parishioners; in the military through the training of officers to work more effectively with their military groups; in leadership training programmes for lay and professional community workers in the areas of education, health, welfare and civic improvement; in the training of nurses to improve their work with staff and patient groups; in group psychotherapy where group forces are utilized for therapeutic purposes; in trade unions in worker education programmes and trade union meetings; in politics with the training of local political workers—in all these fields applied group dynamics is being used effectively.

Four kinds of application of group dynamics, out of the many possible, have been chosen for more careful description here. In each of these, applied group dynamics has made—or can make—a major contribution.

Conferences

Conferences, at the national and international level, have increasingly become almost a way of life. At most conferences, the majority of participants listen passively to the speaking of a few. Even when discussion is encouraged, it is hedged in by formal rules and does not bring the full exchange of thought desired.

An example of the importance of group leadership at a conference can be drawn from a recent international meeting in which the writer participated.

In one group the leader skilfully started by suggesting that each person relate the problem of the group to a specific problem he faced in his country. Essentially the leader made a census of the problems which members had related to the conference purpose. He was sensitive to the hesitation of persons from some countries who felt their programmes were less adequate than those in other countries, and he helped hesitant members to feel more comfortable in the group and to be satisfied that their programmes would not be judged against others. By the time the leader had finished the problem census of the group, he had not only given life and meaning to the problem for discussion, but he had also built a friendly atmosphere, broken down personal insecurities about participating, and created considerable group cohesion. He then

suggested that the group lay out time, plan, and agenda and decide how they wished to use the resource papers some members of the group had prepared.

The group had occasion to test its cohesion. Two members had difficulties with the official language of the group and consequently offered to withdraw. The group as a whole worked with the interpreter and developed a plan that produced adequate communication in this group.

In the second group the leader began by arbitrarily stating that each group member who had prepared a paper would be given five minutes to present a quick digest of it. No time would be allowed, at that point, for questions. The leader arbitrarily showed insensitivity to the desires and feelings of the group members. As a result, this group produced less than the first group. In addition, the members of the group were unhappy not only within the group but within the conference as a whole. It is interesting to note that they blamed persons of other cultures and countries for the group difficulties rather than the incompetence of the leader.

Experiences of these groups supported earlier international conference research, in which it was found that those leaders who were sensitive only to problems at the task level, found language and cultural differences to be major blocks to communication and progress, whereas leaders who were also concerned with the social and emotional problems of the group and did something about them, found language and cultural differences to be of minimal importance.

Adult Education Methods

Studies of the motives governing attendance at adult education classes indicate that desire to join a group and need for social satisfaction are two of the most powerful forces bringing people to adult education activities. The adult educator who can build a class group in which the members interact freely with each other and gain emotional satisfaction from belonging to a cohesive group, in which a warm and friendly atmosphere encourages people to admit inadequacies and try to overcome them, in which the group standards (and not just the teacher's standards) exert friendly pressures on each individual toward maximum learning, and in which the class members are sensitive to the learning difficulties of the other members and are prepared to help them rather than compete against them, has created and released group forces which immeasurably increase individual learning and satisfaction.

Large Meetings

The major problem at lectures and large meetings is to reduce the psychological distance between platform and audience and to involve the audience actively in the meeting. As people are involved they are less resistant. At most lectures and large meetings, the common characteristics are: (a) audience passivity; (b) a readiness to listen and be told, rather than to participate; (c) rejection of the speaker and his ideas because he is different, an expert, or does not have the same problems as the audience; (d) one-way communication which prevents the interchange of opinion and information at problem points; (e) anonymity in a mass of people without opportunities for intercommunication among audience members and without resultant satisfaction of group belongingness; (f) lack of involvement in the conduct and progress of the meeting with consequent slight involvement in its success.

Studies of the dynamics of large meetings and lectures have led to the development of a variety of methods to involve the audience in partnership with the platform in a common activity—exploring together the topic under consideration. Partnership requires active participation on both sides, not activity from the platform and passivity in the audience.

Such applied large-meeting dynamics serves to improve lectures and platform pre-

sentations, rather than to eliminate them. At one meeting the following experiment was made to improve audience interest in the lecture by involving the audience in a project with the speaker. Just before introducing the speaker, the chairman divided the audience of approximately two hundred into four listening groups. Each group of nearly fifty persons was given a different listening task. One group, for example, was asked to listen to the lecture in terms of the most important questions that should be asked of the speaker after the lecture. A second group was asked to identify from the lecture those major areas which should be amplified further in later lectures. The other two groups had similar tasks. After the lecture, each listening group was asked to further subdivide into eight groups of six each. After 10 minutes of small group discussion, the chairman received from each major listening group the reports of one or two of its sub-groups (the number depending upon the time available). With perhaps the expenditure of 15 minutes' additional time, participation was secured from all audience members. Evaluation studies from both audience members and lecturer indicated a more alert audience, greater retention of the lecture, more involvement upon the part of audience members and greater appreciation of the lecturer than was normally found.

Leadership Training

Training in leadership to meet the increasing complexities of our group and social experiences is rapidly growing in all occupational fields. Whether in the training of professional or volunteer workers in community health, education, welfare or civic problems, in the training of supervisors and the executive development of managers in business and government, the development of discussion leaders for a variety of adult education activities, or the preparation of consultants to work with agencies and groups in the field, the demand for leadership training is centring more and more on the development of sensitive, flexible and competent leaders and less and less on learning a few techniques of keeping a meeting under control.

One interesting example of the use of leadership training in creating change lies in the story of the Episcopal Church. During the past five years a national training staff of the church has been conducting local 'parish life conferences' to train the clergy and lay church leaders in ways of involving their parishioners more actively in the life of the church. Results show an increase in church membership as well as a change in parishioners' interest in the church.

Leadership training today is stressing the development of understanding of basic causes of group behaviour, diagnostic sensitivity to the symptoms of causes as they occur, self-insight into the consequences of the leader's action on the group, ethical concern for involvement of people and prevention of manipulation, and skill in helping the group at the appropriate time. Thus, leadership training is becoming a fundamental way of applying group dynamics knowledge.

Current interest in leadership training is evolving a new theory and set of approaches to human relations training. Realizing that the purpose of leadership training is to change and improve the way the leader acts and reacts in the group, training must do more than give knowledge of shiftings of attitude. It must develop intricate skills of diagnosis of group problems as well as skills of effectively and appropriately participating in the group.

AGENCIES OF APPLIED GROUP DYNAMICS

While applied group dynamics is now the concern of many action leaders in many walks of life, certain organizations and institutions are concerned about the spread of the application of group dynamics knowledge in practice.

The National Training Laboratory in Group Development was the first institution taking as its major purpose that of training people in the application of group dynamics

knowledge. It was founded in 1947 by the National Education Association of the United States and the Research Centre for Group Dynamics of the University of Michigan. (The first research centre in group dynamics in the world was established originally by the late Kurt Lewin at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1944.) The National Training Laboratory in Group Development has held training sessions at Bethel, Maine, each summer since 1947. Leaders, trainers, teachers, managers, consultants from all major occupational groups visit Bethel each summer to participate in the programme. Participants have come from almost all European countries and from many in Asia, Africa, and South America. Here training in diagnostic sensitivity to group forces is coupled with development of skills of leadership and involvement of others. Emphasis is placed on self-understanding and self-insight as well as upon the ethics of democratic leadership and membership.

Since 1947 many other such laboratories, sponsored by leading universities in the country, have grown up in the several regions of the United States.¹ In 1952, the National Training Laboratory in Group Development expanded its services to include many research and training activities throughout the year. In that year it became the National Training Laboratories of the National Education Association of the United States (1201 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington 6, D.C.) with relationships to 12 universities with human relations centres and training laboratories.

The Adult Education Association of the United States of America (743 N. Wabash Avenue, Chicago 11, Illinois) has published a monthly magazine called *Adult Leadership* for the past five years. Each issue attempts to bring to the adult education field the results of social science research and its application. A considerable number of its issues over this period has dealt with various aspects of group dynamics and has thus brought understanding and insight, and has suggested methods, to many thousands of lay and professional leaders.

The development of effective individual, group and community living can be greatly enhanced through the effective application of group dynamics knowledge.

A SOCIOLOGICAL INQUIRY ON INTERNATIONAL WORK CAMPS IN THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY IN 1955

DIETER DANCKWORTT

The sociological inquiry described below is one of 30 pilot projects in youth education included in the system of Associated Youth Enterprises. Sponsored by the Government of the Federal Republic of Germany and carried out by the Internationale Jugendgemeinschaftsdienste, the enterprise is expected to point the way towards greater co-operation between youth workers and social scientists.

During the post-war years, many organizations for international understanding and exchange of persons were established in Germany, as in other countries. Under National

1. Among them are: Western Training Laboratory in Group Development; Pacific Northwest Training Laboratory in Group Development; Intermountain Laboratory in Group Development; Southwest Human Relations Training Laboratory; Midwest Workshop in Community Human Relations.

Socialism, German youth had been isolated, and interest in international meetings was therefore intense. The Military Governments and later the German authorities—particularly through the Federal Youth Plan—financed these meetings generously, and international exchanges became a permanent feature of the official education programmes of the *Länder* of the German Federal Republic.

Looking back over the past 10 years, teachers, and those responsible for organizing such exchanges, can congratulate themselves on the fact that several thousands of young Germans have met foreigners in Germany, and far more have gone on group visits to other countries. At the same time they also realize, with some anxiety, that fewer contacts are now being established and that the interests of young people today are no longer the same as those of the post-war generation who organized the first international meetings from 1947 to 1949. In Western Germany especially, with its rapid industrial progress and the mounting wave of prosperity, great changes are being worked in young people. It is therefore understandable that teachers and organizers should now be turning their attention to a sociological analysis of the situation and of the results of their efforts.

International work camps, which represent a particularly active and concentrated type of international gathering—and which have already been discussed on several occasions in this bulletin—are fortunate in receiving considerable financial support—as compared with that afforded in other countries—from the Federal Government. Immediately after the war, a number of foreign organizations, such as the American Friends Service Committee (AFSC), the Mennonites and the Mennonite Brethren Church focused their aid programmes on Europe, and therefore also on Germany, organizing work camps there; in recent years, however, a German organization, known as the Internationale Jugendgemeinschaftsdienste (IJGD) (International Youth Group Services), has come to the fore in this field. In 1955, the IJGD, with its three secretariats in Hanover, Munich and Berlin, organized 111 work camps, in which a total of some 2,200 young people, about one-third of them foreigners, took part.

The camp leaders and secretarial staff of this organization are mainly students and young teachers. In 1954, some of them, who were studying the social sciences, worked out a plan for an inquiry into these work camps and their influence on the young people taking part in them. In 1955, the Federal Ministry of the Interior and the Ministry of Education of Lower Saxony announced that they were prepared to finance such an inquiry. The services of Professor Bondy (Psychology), Professor Schelsky (Sociology) and Professor Sieverts (Juvenile Law), of the University of Hamburg, were secured as scientific advisers. D. Claessens (Sociology) and the author of this article, as a psychologist, undertook the inquiry itself in May 1955.

In such an inquiry, the first task of the social scientist is to acquaint himself with the aims of the organization (hereafter referred to for brevity, as the IJGD ideology) and its methods, and to translate both into social science terms. Sociological and psychological theories have here to be harmonized.

The IJGD ideology has undoubtedly been strongly influenced by other work camp organizations, and particularly by three groups of organizations. The first group consists of the 'pacifist international organizations', best represented by the Service Civil International (SCI), which was founded by Pierre Ceresole in 1920 and now has branches in many countries. The Quakers (AFSC) and various religious work camp services also belong to this group. These organizations concentrate on providing assistance for the victims of natural disasters or people living in underdeveloped areas, and this often involves hard physical labour. They aim, politically, at the substitution of a form of 'civilian service' for military service. Those attending the camps, and the leaders of the organizations themselves, are of many different nationalities and their ideals are religious and Utopian in character.

The second group consists of the 'national popular education organizations'. In Germany, they constituted a section of the youth movement and were known, through

Members of the IJGD spontaneously form a work team. (Unesco.)



the work of Professor Rosenstock-Huessy, as Peasants', Workers' and Students' Camps. From 1922 to 1933, these camps represented an attempt to bring various social groups together, in the hope of overcoming the serious social tensions obtaining in Germany at that time. They were centres where people of various political parties and persuasions could meet and clear up their political differences and, to us today, their ideal of national integration appears to have been strongly influenced by Grundvig and the Danish folk high school movement.

The third group consists of the 'social welfare' work camp organizations, the principal examples being the German Freiwillige Arbeitsdienst (Voluntary Work Service) before 1933, and the United States Civilian Conservation Corps of the Roosevelt era. Their main purpose is to provide employment and living accommodation for young people in times of severe unemployment. They are usually generously financed and strongly influenced by the State, and disappear as soon as the economic crisis has come to an end.

Since the IJGD did not begin its work until 1950, when the worst phase of the German economic crisis was already over, the idea behind this third group gradually dropped out of the picture so far as the IJGD was concerned. The ideal of political integration characteristic of the second group, and the international idealism of the first, were, on the other hand, incorporated in the IJGD ideology. The need for such ideals was particularly great among the young students who had just returned home from the war and whose whole world had been shattered by the unconditional surrender of the Hitler régime. Through Allied democratic propaganda, they learnt that every citizen should take his share of political responsibility and that young people had a particularly important part to play in building up democracy. Yet when they tried to establish autonomous students' organizations in the schools and universities, and claimed special rights for them, they came up against the traditional authoritarian structure of German schools and universities. The old forces were too strong and, as a protest reaction, many of the most active students went off for the holidays planning to put the conception of an ideal democratic community into practice outside the schools. In this way the first IJGD camps came into being.

The idea of the IJGD is that the young members should learn at a camp to join together spontaneously, without a leader, to work as a team and shoulder responsibilities. They should also learn to co-operate with people of other nations, professions and social classes and not only to tolerate but also to respect differences. Above all, the IJGD hopes that camp life will continue to influence the young people in their 'back-home-situation' and will help them to become active and thinking citizens.

The main questions which the experts wanted answered in the inquiry were therefore the following: Are the expected attitude adjustments taking place? In what changes of behaviour are they to be observed? Which young people are most influenced by camp life? To what is the influence of the camp to be attributed? Finally, what improvements in method would strengthen the camp's influence?

The reader will be spared an account of the special methodological considerations underlying the inquiry. We knew of only one example of a scientific inquiry dealing with international youth camps—that described in Riecken's book: *The Volunteer Work Camp* (1955, U.S.A.). Riecken was concerned, however, with a different age-group, namely students between 18 and 25 years, while the IJGD deals with those from 16 to 18 years old. Moreover, the members of the group investigated by Riecken (AFSC Camp) had all a very similar Quaker background and the American methods of inquiry were not applicable to conditions in Germany. Despite much valuable guidance derived from similar inquiries undertaken, for example, by Allport, Adorno, Lippitt, etc., we had all the way to go. Our investigation was therefore bound to be only a pilot study.

Barely two months could be spent on preparatory work. To begin with, 12 camps with 250 members were selected as representative of all the other camps organized during the year. The inquiry was focused on the 140 German members of these 12 camps. In order to get as complete a picture as possible of their background (in particular, the educational level of their families), they had to be interviewed in their homes a fortnight before the camp was held. This was followed by observation in the camp itself, a written questionnaire a fortnight after the camp, and, finally, a second intensive interview in their homes four months after the camp. A provisional attitude-scale and interview-guide were devised for the purposes of the inquiry. Bogardus' social distance scale and two smaller projection tests were also used in the preliminary questioning. Observations were then carried out by pairs of students who had received a short course of training for the purpose and were responsible for classifying the behaviour of young people in the camp in accordance with previously established categories, and for working out a sociogram.¹ The first interrogation after the camp made use of a 'satisfaction scale', and the second again employed the interview-guide and attitude-scale.

When making their visits, the interviewers (four psychologists) were cordially welcomed by almost all the families. The interviews took the form of a general interrogation of university students, touching as little as possible on the prospective camp. The interviewers were principally interested in the family atmosphere, from the point of view of the adolescent's upbringing, the degree of independence or dependence he displayed, his hobbies and his attitudes towards work, educational questions and problems of co-existence with other groups. Great interest was also taken in the extent to which he had travelled, met foreigners and had experience of youth camps and groups. A general psychological assessment was also made, with the help of tests, of the subject's stage of development and the make-up of his personality.

A preliminary investigation in three Whitsun holiday camps had shown that it was possible to carry out open observations on the group in a camp without unduly disturbing the camp's work. The difficulties encountered were due rather to the fact that the observers were usually older than the participants and accordingly, when the groups were formed, tended to be selected as leaders; this made it more difficult for them to keep a proper perspective and remain objective. As one of the two observers, however, generally succeeded in remaining in the background, the action initiated by the other could still be fairly well controlled. So far, it has been possible to make

1. For a discussion on the use of sociograms, see: Marcel de Clerck, 'The Problem of the Appointment of "Functional" Leaders', *Fundamental and Adult Education*, Vol. VI, No. 2, April 1954.

full use of only part of the wealth of data contained in the observers' notebooks. In most cases, enough observations on individual camp members were available to enable the observers, under supervision, to classify them according to their status in the group, activities, etc., in the course of the 10 days following the camp.

The interviewers, who again visited the young camp members in their homes four months after the camp, were given all the data collected on each individual beforehand. The interview dealt with the same questions as had been raised prior to the camp and, whenever it was clear that the camp had had an influence, an effort was made to find out more exactly why and to what extent it had done so. These interviews generally lasted two to three hours. At the same time, the parents were asked what they thought about the camp and its effects on their son or daughter.

SOME RESULTS OF THE INQUIRY

The data collected were utilized in two ways. Firstly, they were classified as far as possible and recorded on punched cards so that large-scale correlations could be made; secondly, more detailed reports were written on all camp members and a monograph on a series of typical cases was prepared. This material, sifted to extract the most important conclusions, is shortly to be published. The results were discussed with the camp leaders and secretaries of the organization at a conference held in May 1955; these discussions suggested a number of conclusions bearing on educational questions and the organization of camps.

Which young people are now most attracted by the IJGD? Organizations endeavouring as far as possible to appeal to all sections of the population generally do not realize how much the 'prospectus', i.e. in this case, the form of organization and the aims of a camp, determines the type of participant, and how much this, in turn, influences the methods of work and aims. Most of the volunteers for IJGD camps are 16 or 17 year-olds who are not yet overburdened with work for the school-leaving examination (*Abitur*) and have not yet enough money, or have not their parents' permission, to travel abroad; they therefore choose this form of holiday occupation. The older age-groups (18 to 25 years), on the other hand, seem to prefer to visit other countries independently, in pairs or small groups, by bicycle or motor-cycle, and are no longer prepared to submit to the strict rules of community life in a camp. Girls are particularly interested in these camps, for their social aims make a great appeal to them and the problems of travelling abroad alone at their age are still greater for them than for boys; international camps in their own country therefore seem to be the best solution. Another characteristic of camp membership is the high percentage of secondary-school pupils. Young workers appear to prefer not to work during their short holidays and, feeling more 'grown-up' on account of their greater independence, consider camps 'childish'. Not all secondary-school pupils in the 16 to 18 age-group, however, are interested in camps, but mainly those who intend to take up a career in the social field, as teachers, doctors, lawyers, or welfare workers. Assuming with Spranger that a certain type of character goes with such social careers, it is easier to understand why the camp members should be distinguished from the control groups covered by the inquiry by greater open-mindedness and liberality in their attitudes.

The problem of adapting themselves to life in a new and unknown community was familiar enough to members of the first IJGD camps organized¹ after the war (1948-49), since they had already become acquainted with such situations as a result of the war, flight and migration; for the young people of 1955, on the other hand, it was a new and exciting experience. They change from the 'closed society' of family and school (the only one they really know), with its firmly established hierarchy and clearly defined rules of keen competition (shades of the school report!) to an 'open society', which knows nothing of competition or penalties for the unsuccessful, and has no

hard-and-fast hierarchy, and where the tasks of leadership are distributed among the camp members and each is left free to decide how far he wishes to identify himself with the group. For these are the characteristic features of an IJGD camp. Unconsciously, the young people feel that here they have an opportunity to develop hitherto unknown aspects of their personality without risking humiliation in the event of failure. An atmosphere of goodwill prevails in the camp, which gives members courage to join in discussions and to play their part in the self-government of the camp.

Those who have been subjected to unduly severe parental authority or have been brought up in a narrow, restricted society, are particularly conscious of this growing confidence. It is thus understandable that the greatest effect is to be observed in camp members who have not taken a prominent place in the camp but have kept somewhat timidly in the background. It is precisely these young people who say that they 'have lost their inhibitions and become freer'.

This strengthening of young people's self-confidence at a critical stage of their development was most marked in camps where there was very little educational organization, that is to say, where a great many unexpected, unscheduled and exciting things happened and camp crises had to be overcome. Material conditions, such as weather, accommodation and food were of secondary importance in comparison with these psychological factors.

The absence of any rigid administration has further consequences which make it more difficult to achieve certain other aims pursued by the IJGD. For example, national prejudices can be removed at camp only if there is an older, experienced leader who can explain the causes of the national differences which often lead to clashes. Unless this is done, the young people, often influenced by the opinions of their family and school, soon revert to their old prejudices. The IJGD therefore endeavours to encourage individual camp members to visit other camps, in order to strengthen the influence exercised on them.

The discussions between those carrying out this inquiry and the IJGD organizers have shown how great is the danger of under-estimating the change which has taken place in the attitudes and interests of present-day youth (part of the change in our contemporary civilization) and basing our aims and methods on out-dated ideas about young people. Moreover, the importance of the problem of development has been given greater prominence, for much too little account is taken of it in connexion with political training and international understanding. Camp leaders must learn more about these psychological factors if they are to understand young camp members better and help them more effectively.

It has also been possible to determine in what respects camp life and ordinary conditions (home life and school) differ, or indeed are in some ways at variance. Such differences give rise to conflicts in the process of assimilating and adapting experiences and create new needs for follow-up work by the organization after the camp.

As the instruments, such as the attitude-scale, used in the inquiry were only provisional, and as the period spent in camp was brief and those taking part were very young, it was difficult to say exactly how forcibly and to what extent attitudes were changed by camp life. For this, it would be necessary to observe behaviour over a period of several years.

UNESCO ASSOCIATED PROJECTS—XII

THE ILOILO COMMUNITY SCHOOL EXPERIMENT: THE VERNACULAR AS MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION

PEDRO T. ORATA

What are the effects upon the development of Filipino children—social, economic, political, and cultural—of teaching through the mother tongue in the first two grades, followed by teaching in English in grades three to six of the elementary school?

This is the subject of a six-year experiment in the province of Iloilo in the Philippines, which was initiated and supervised by the then Division Superintendent of Schools, Dr. Jose V. Aguilar.¹ The experiment was started in 1948-49 and completed in 1953-54. The first years of the experiment were described in the Unesco monograph *The Use of Vernacular Languages in Education*. The account of the experiment given below continues from the fifth year.

BACKGROUND

The official language of instruction in the Philippines since 1898 and up to the present time has been English. During the early years of American occupation the use of any other language than English in the public schools was forbidden. The Philippine Constitution, adopted in 1935, provided that steps be taken by the Philippine Congress for the development and adoption of a national language based on one of the existing native tongues. By Executive Order of the President of the Philippines, Tagalog was declared the basis for the development of a Filipino national language. The teaching of this national language as one of the subjects of the curriculum from the first grade of the elementary school to the fourth year of the secondary school was made general beginning July 1945. However, if Tagalog were to be used as the medium of instruction the difficulty of teaching in a foreign language, such as English, would be found to be also inherent in the teaching in the national language in areas where this language is not used and where instead there is another native language or vernacular.

Tagalog is a foreign language to over 70 per cent of the Filipino people and many Filipino educators advocate the use of the mother tongue as the medium of instruction in the early grades of the elementary school before a transition is made to either English or Tagalog where these are not the local vernacular.

THE EXPERIMENT

In 1948-49 an experiment was conducted on a limited scale in the province of Iloilo. The immediate problem was to find out whether English or the local vernacular, Hiligaynon, was more effective as a medium of instruction in arithmetic, reading, language, and social studies. The experiment was conducted with due care so as to satisfy the requirements of scientific procedure and criteria with regard to the control of the factors involved and the validity and reliability of the tests used.

1. While it may appear that the Iloilo experiment was undertaken mostly, if not wholly, by Dr. Jose V. Aguilar, as Division Superintendent of Schools of the province of Iloilo, where the experiment was undertaken, it should be stated in fairness to all concerned that the Research and Evaluation Division of the Bureau of Public Schools (Manila), under the guidance of Dr. Tito Clemente, did much of the work in planning, designing, setting up and evaluating the experiment, including the statistical treatment and reporting of the results.

In carrying out the experiment an experimental group of classes was taught through the vernacular, with a control group of classes taught through the medium of English. Teachers for these classes were carefully chosen and equated so far as possible for educational qualification, experience and efficiency and an equal number of schools were included in each group. In each group one school was an urban one, three in agricultural areas and three located in fishing villages. In each district, care was taken that the schools were representative of the poorest, average, and richest economic levels. The pupils in both groups were similarly matched in age, intelligence, economic status, and other factors.

To measure achievement, three equivalent tests were used (one series in English and another in Hiligaynon), namely: four tests in arithmetic (counting objects, counting by 1s, 2s, 4s, etc., computation involving the four fundamental processes and simple fractions, and problem solving); five tests in reading (picture-word recognition, word meaning, and paragraph meaning); and four tests in the social studies (selecting the correct behaviour depicted in pictures, selecting the correct answers to judgment questions). The so-called Critical Ratio technique was used to establish the 'confidence that can be placed in the obtained difference between the average achievement of the two groups of pupils'.

Summing up the evidence the results of the experiment up to and including the fifth year, are as follows:

During the first two years, when the medium of instruction in the experimental group was the vernacular language, Hiligaynon, the experimental group showed a marked superiority over the control group, in which English was the medium of instruction. In the third year, English as the medium was introduced for the first time to the experimental group. In that year, the experimental group still maintained its lead, particularly in reading, arithmetic, and the social studies, in spite of the fact that the pupils in this group had had only one year of instruction in English (as a subject), as against the three years of those in the control group. In the fourth year, for the first time, the control group showed a slight advantage over the experimental group, except in social studies, where the latter had the better showing. This observed superiority of the control group might have been due to the cumulative effect of four years of instruction through English and to the operation of certain factors whose effects were not registered in the test results. In the fifth year of the experiment, however, the experimental group regained its superiority.

In particular, the results of the fifth year of the experiment suggest the following conclusions:

1. That the pupils in the experimental group were superior to the pupils in the control group in arithmetic, reading, and the social studies. The differences were statistically significant.
2. That in language the pupils in the control group were superior to those in the experimental group, but the difference was not statistically significant.
3. That the pupils in the experimental group were 'more extroversive' than those in the control group. However, the difference was not statistically significant.
4. That the pupils in the experimental group were more dominant, emotionally stable and emotionally mature than the pupils in the control group; but the control group was more socially mature. In both cases, however, the differences were not statistically significant.
5. That in spite of its apparent recession in scholastic achievement in the fourth year of the experiment, the experimental group has regained its lead over the control group.

The Sixth (Final) Year of the Experiment, 1953-54

In the sixth and last year of the experiment, the experimental group maintained its superiority over the control group in the various subjects involved. Specifically, the

results of the experiment during this period suggest the following conclusions:

1. That the pupils in the experimental group were superior to those in the control group in the social studies. The difference was statistically significant.
2. That in arithmetic and reading the pupils in the experimental group had an advantage over the pupils in the control group, but the differences were not statistically significant.
3. That in language, the pupils in the control group were better than those in the experimental group—as they were after the fifth year of the experiment; however, the difference was not statistically significant in either year.
4. That the pupils in the experimental group were more emotionally stable, more emotionally mature than the pupils in the control group, and they tended to be more dominant than the pupils in the control group.
5. That in spite of its apparent recession in scholastic achievement in the fourth year of the experiment, the experimental group maintained its superiority in the fifth and sixth years of the experiment.

General Conclusion

As would be expected in experiments of this kind, the results were not strictly uniform and consistent except in indicating generally the superiority of the experimental group over the control group. It was natural that the experimental group, which used its native language in the first two years, should be superior in scholastic achievement to the control group, which used a foreign language—English. What is significant was that the experimental group, generally speaking, maintained its superiority—except at the end of the fourth year—over the control group. Also, it was not expected that the experimental group would catch up with the control group in knowledge of English after six months' acquaintance with this language. This led Dr. Aguilar, the author of the experiment, to the view that bilingualism—starting with the vernacular and continuing with English as medium of instruction after the first two grades—is no longer a hope or an hypothesis, but an accomplished fact. On this point, Dr. Aguilar said *inter alia*: 'There is no point now in referring again to the extraordinary superior learning in the vernacular to that of English in the first two grades. The other result may bear repeating because to most people it was unexpected: faster educational maturation in the mother tongue together with advanced age caused, in the third grade, speedier learning in English in about six months than in the same language in two years and six months. These are the results from pencil-and-paper tests of the objective type. We now have the results, at the end of the third grade, on free expression in English as represented by oral reading, spoken language, and written language. In the first two (oral reading and spoken language), children with a two-year foundation in the vernacular were slightly better; in the last (written language), children who started with English in the beginning (first) grade were *only slightly better than those that were taught in Hiligaynon during the first two years.*'¹

NON-ACADEMIC RESULTS OF THE EXPERIMENT

The foregoing results refer only to classroom achievement. Additional evidence of the superiority of the experimental group has been gathered which tends to make the case for the vernacular stronger still. These have to do with ability to organize and express thought, ability and interest in telling news and stories, regularity of school attendance, social application, and others. On these, the testimony of teachers and parents was obtained.

1. Jose V. Aguilar, *The Significance of Bilingualism in Philippine Education*, 1952, typescript, p. 4. Our italics.

Opinion of Teachers

On the ability to organize and express thought: of those using the vernacular, seven rated their classes above average, and one, excellent. All the eight teachers using English as medium of instruction rated their classes as average. 'To the question, "Which of your classes has the greater desire to read and write?"' The answer was . . . Hiligaynon. The teachers stressed the phonetic ease of the vernacular, and the fact that it is the home language. . . . On the application on the school grounds, of instruction in personal traits, in social traits, and in health habits, five teachers consistently rated their classes conducted in Hiligaynon above average; one rated them average in social traits and above average in the rest. All the eight teachers who conducted their classes in English rated them average in regard to these traits.'¹

Corroborative Opinion of the Parents

The parents were asked specific questions as to the causes of the stronger desire, ability, or trait of their children in respect to certain situations—whether instruction in Hiligaynon, in English, or other causes were responsible. The reactions of the parents were as follows:

1. Which children (those taught in Hiligaynon or those taught in English) had the greater desire to keep regular attendance at school? 230, Hiligaynon; 21, English; 2, other causes; 36, same or no desire.
2. Which had greater love for reading and writing? 234, Hiligaynon; 18, English; 1, other causes; 36, same or no love.
3. Which had the better ability in telling news and stories heard or read? 222, Hiligaynon; 20, English; 1, other causes; 47, same or no ability.
4. Which had the greater desire in transmitting to parents what has been studied in school on industry, self-confidence, respect of flag, love of things Philippine, etc.? 214, Hiligaynon; 18, English; 57, same or no desire.
5. Which had shown greater respect for parents as shown by the following: obedience to commands, saying 'goodbye', kissing hands, etc.? 233, Hiligaynon; 11, English; 3, other causes; 42, same or no respect.
6. Which had shown better health habits such as washing the face, combing the hair, brushing teeth, changing clothes, bathing, etc.? 198, Hiligaynon; 18, English; 3, other causes; 71, same or no trait.
7. Which had shown greater ability in such home activities as spreading or rolling sleeping mats, putting out kitchen fire, sweeping floor, cleaning the surroundings, fetching water and firewood, etc.? 194, Hiligaynon; 23, English; 3, other causes; 70, same or no ability.

MOTHER TONGUE A BRIDGE BETWEEN SCHOOL AND HOME

Home and Community

Mr. Aguilar did not stop at experimenting with the use of the vernacular as medium of instruction. He made also a direct attack upon the problems of community life by requiring the teachers to devote a part of their time to community work. Instead of confining themselves to teaching the three Rs, teachers visited homes and taught parents to build sanitary toilets, plant vegetables and raise poultry and pigs, construct drainage systems, prepare balanced diets, tend children and the aged, and improve the privacy of the homes. In class teachers made these activities the bases of studies—reading, language, arithmetic, and civics. Pupils visited home gardens, the town post office, the doctor's clinic, the agricultural experiment station, and other public places. Later, discussing what they had learned through observation, they were led to show

1. Jose V. Aguilar, *Education in Rural Areas for Better Living*, p. 175.

their parents how their knowledge could be applied to the problems of the home and community. Then, children and adults, using the same language, began to work together to improve living standards. The teachers acted as guides, also using the native language, and exemplified in their own homes the practices advocated by them.

There is far to go, as Mr. Aguilar modestly admits, but results are already promising to unite the older and younger generations—thanks to a common language—instead of perpetuating the existing division between them. Speaking on this—bridging the school, the home and the community through the mother tongue—Mr. Aguilar said:

‘It is not at all strange that in experimental rural communities teachers have scored initial successes in social and economic betterment by exploiting the mother tongue. In such communities the local language used in the lower grades builds a bridge between the home and the school. Parents testify, in homespun expression, that the vernacular “opens the children’s minds” and add, meaningfully, that “They know how to explain at home what they learn in school”, this last thought being more plainly stated by scores of parents, thus, “We like it very much because they soon learn to read papers and we are not behind with the news”.’

Evaluating the Iloilo Community School Progress

Before the experiment was completed—after the fourth year—the Director of Public Schools, upon the request of Dr. Aguilar, appointed a committee of five members, who were at the time chiefs of divisions in the General Office of the Bureau of Public Schools, to make an independent evaluation of the community school programme of Iloilo. Except for the scholastic achievement in the various subjects—reading, language, arithmetic and social studies—the committee confirmed the over-all results of the experiment. In the case of scholastic achievement, a composite achievement test based upon the courses of study in the various subjects was given to all the fourth grade children in the experimental and control schools in the province. The results, which were statistically significant, showed that ‘in the test in arithmetic, reading, social studies, and language, the pupils taught with English (control group) as the medium of instruction from Grade I to Grade IV achieved more than those taught in the vernacular (experimental group) as medium of instruction in Grades I and II and in English in Grades III and IV’.¹

On the surface, this conclusion, which was arrived at independently and with the use of different sets of achievement tests, may be interpreted as the reverse of the conclusion summarized in the first part of this report. But it need not be. It was indicated in the first part of this paper that after the fourth year of the experiment, two years after the experimental group passed to English as the medium of instruction in place of the vernacular, the control group—for the first time—showed superiority in the various subjects over the experimental group. It was explained that this was probably due to the cumulative effect of English and, since in the independent evaluation referred to here the tests were all in English, it was natural that the control group would be superior to the experimental group at that stage. However, in the fifth and sixth years of the experiment, the experimental group resumed and maintained its lead in scholastic achievement over the control group.

In regard to non-scholastic objectives, the findings of the independent evaluation committee were positive in favour of the experimental group. Among the conclusions reached were the following:

1. In bridging the gap between the schools and the homes, the possibilities of starting with the vernacular and continuing with English after the first two years ‘can be tremendous. Its possibilities of improving the community and its people are great’.²
2. The public schools of Iloilo, on the whole and apart from the experimental classes,

1. Bureau of Public Schools, Philippines, *Evaluating the Iloilo Community School Program*, Manila, Bureau of Printing, 1954, 126 pp.

2. *ibid.*, p. 24.

have done very creditable work in improving the life of the people in the rural communities, particularly along sanitary, economic and social, and cultural lines. 'The community gardens, the reading centres, and the general cleanliness of the towns and *barrios* visited by the Committee are proof that the efforts of the schools are bearing fruit.'¹

3. Have the curricula affected living conditions in the Iloilo communities? 'The answer must be *yes*, and even in the poorest of schools it would still be *yes*. But what marks the Iloilo programme as different from the other local programmes was the determined, reasoned-out push by the teachers and the parents working more closely together than in other provinces.'²
4. There was evidence of influence exerted by the *barrio* schools over homes. 'Here we saw a really attractive group of inexpensive but well-constructed bamboo homes with well-kept gardens. . . .' The model *barrio* adjoined a school which had well-kept gardens and clean surroundings.³
5. The teachers were asked if the community school approach increased their load. The answer was generally yes, but two-thirds of them said that 'if they were parents of school children, [they] would prefer sending their children to classes using the integrative-activity (another name for the community-school approach) program to sending them to classes using the traditional program'.

The impact of the Iloilo experiment upon the rest of the schools of the Philippines is very great. Several divisions have taken considerable interest in the use of the vernacular as medium of instruction in the first two grades of the elementary school followed by English in the upper grades. In every division the community approach is being tried and found, generally speaking, more effective in educating children and adults to raise their standards of living without necessarily affecting scholastic standards. There are many unsolved problems, however, among which is that of relating subject matter and home and community activities. There have been no complaints that the children were being exploited, a sign that the parents are wholeheartedly in favour of a programme that relates the curriculum to home and community improvement and trains the children to work and even to earn a part of their school expenses.

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1. *ibid.*, p. 25.

2. *ibid.*, p. 40.

3. *ibid.*, p. 52.

NOTES AND RECORDS

INTERNATIONAL

GREECE

EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR RURAL YOUTH

Over 25,000 young farm people participated in the educational activities carried out in 1955 by the 350 extension agriculturalists and 90 home demonstration agents from the Division of Agricultural Extension Service of the Ministry of Agriculture in Greece.

The objectives of the Service were to supplement school education, to give vocational training in agriculture and to enrich the social and cultural life of participants. Emphasis was placed upon the practical application of knowledge in line with the saying of the ancient Greek philosopher, Periander, 'Practice is everything'. The development of a spirit of co-operation was considered an important step in preparing young people for life in the community and in the nation. The Service aimed to improve farm practices, increase production, improve living conditions in the home and standards of living in the community and nation.

The agriculturists collaborated with the village teacher in training pupils in principles of self-government and in organizing pre-vocational agricultural activities. They also helped supervise the 907 school gardens in which over 40,000 boys and girls worked.

The extension service organized night courses to give opportunities for further education to some of the 500,000 young people estimated to have an inadequate school education. In 1955, 18,000 young people attended these courses.

In addition to these night courses, training in agriculture was carried out through individual supervised projects in agriculture and home economics. Over 7,500 boys and girls completed projects last year or participated in a supervised group project. Four hundred and twenty-two travelling schools were held to help young people acquire skills such as tree-pruning, grafting, cheese-making, bee-keeping, and fruit and meat preservation. Schools for farm building skills gave young men a three-month course in the principles of carpentry and masonry.

The Extension Service has donated books to 330 rural libraries established in halls made available by communities or by local agricultural organizations.

Educational visits and excursions, demonstrations of improved farm practices and local agricultural exhibitions were also organized.

After becoming familiar with methods of self-government, groups of farm boys and girls organized Educational Rural Youth Clubs. In addition to agricultural activities, these clubs organized a wide range of programmes to help promote the vocational, spiritual and social development of farm youth.

The Agricultural Extension Service worked in close co-operation with the public. Local organizations and community members took an interest in the work of the rural youth groups by making space available for meetings, by making land available for club houses or for agricultural projects sponsored by the clubs. Some communities or agricultural organizations provided grants for out-of-school education. In most of the rural areas, the Extension Service had local advisory committees made up of teachers, priests, presidents of communities and leaders of farm organizations. Co-operation with parents was considered an important part of the approach to rural youth education.

INDIA

NATIONAL FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION TRAINING CENTRE

Mr. Atnaram Raojr Deshpande, recently appointed by the Government of India as director of the Indian National Centre for Fundamental Education, which is shortly to be established in the neighbourhood of New Delhi, is now visiting selected projects of fundamental education on a Unesco fellowship. He took part in the conference of experts on fundamental education, held in Paris. Unesco will be supplying technical equipment to the centre in 1956 and will be assigning two experts to assist in its development in 1957.

The Planning Research and Action Institute of Uttar Pradesh has undertaken a pilot project in agricultural education, an experiment with rural youth clubs for boys from 12 to 20. Both schoolboys and illiterates are included in the clubs. A full-time youth worker has been employed in two villages in the Etawah district; and the work in four villages of Bailia district has been entrusted to field teachers under the guidance of the District Officer for Social Education.

To determine the club programmes, the 4-H Clubs and other similar organizations in different countries were studied and visits made to other states of India where such organizations were already at work. As a result of study and observation, a programme suited to local, social and economic conditions and cultural patterns was drawn up for the experimental clubs. The aims of the work were defined in five words: *Swawalamban* (self-reliance), *Swasthya* (health), *Sewa* (social service), *Sanskriti* (culture) and *Sahkarita* (co-operation). As in scouting, the club members have followed a plan which offers honours and proficiency badges for successive stages of work. The emblem has three symbols: wheat for rural prosperity, the lotus flower for cultural heritage and national operations, and the sun for energy.

Each member has undertaken a project such as vegetable-growing, planting fruit trees, raising cattle, bee-keeping or repairing and maintaining agricultural implements. They have adopted scientific methods of seed selection, sowing, spacing, manuring and disease-protection. Village and district exhibitions of produce have been held and prizes awarded. The problem of boys whose parents had no land has been partially solved by the donation of land by interested villagers. Some landless Harijan boys leased a piece of land from the owner on a fifty-fifty share basis.

In addition to agricultural and economic projects, the clubs have given training in parliamentary procedure. They have also organized community-wide festivals for Janmash-tami, Diwali and Dashedra, with community singing, shadow-plays and short theatrical performances.

After two years, the leaders considered that the method should be tried in three new districts. After clubs in Lucknow, Gorakhpur and Saharanpur had been operating for a year, a seminar on youth work was organized for youth leaders, field and district officers. To meet the growing demand for similar work

among girls and young women, a committee is drafting plans for a new pilot project.

LEBANON

The Young Women's Christian Association is carrying out a special programme of education for rural women and girls in the Akkar area in northern Lebanon. Although the work started with the organization of a Girl Reserve Club, at present much of it is done through roving teams and mothers' clubs.

The roving teams include a leader and four girls, aged 17 to 30. They work in two or three different villages, organizing meetings with the women. In each village they find responsible women and girls with whom they plan future programmes and who take charge of the work during their absence. The educational work consists largely of teaching the women to read and write, sew and knit. In teaching illiterates, they generally use the Laubach method 'Each one, teach one'.

While the mothers are attending classes, the girls take care of the children, bathing them, feeding them and playing with them. Sometimes they help clean the house or cook the meals. When mothers return, they are often surprised to see the change in the looks and behaviour of their children, but express fear lest the 'Evil Eye' may catch a very clean baby. The Girl Reserves then argue with the mothers, pointing out the relationship of cleanliness to health; they try to show that some of these beliefs are based on superstitions. In this way, the mothers learn new ways of taking care of their children and keeping house.

U.S.A.

EVALUATION STUDY OF AN ENCAMPMENT FOR CITIZENSHIP

Another recent example of co-operation between the social scientist and the educator may be seen in the evaluation study of a short-term educational project, made for the Encampment for Citizenship by the Bureau of Applied Social Research of Colombia University. It was conducted by an independent research agency so as to ensure impartiality. It was financed and made possible by a grant from the Emil Schwarzhaupt Foundation.

The Encampment for Citizenship was founded in 1946 and is sponsored by the American Ethical Union, a non-sectarian federation of American Ethical Culture Societies. Its pur-

pose is to prepare young people to play a constructive role in their communities and to act effectively in public affairs. The effort of the Encampment is to further that change and growth in young adults which will make for (a) clarity of democratic principles and an understanding of the ideological differences and conflicts of our time; (b) knowledge and understanding of social problems which confront the American people in their local, national, and international communities; (c) practical effectiveness in community participation and competence in carrying political responsibility.

The purpose of the evaluation study was to measure change in the young people who participated in the Encampment, to learn whether growth was furthered in the desired directions, and whether the effects could be identified as due to the Encampment; whether other unanticipated and undesirable changes had resulted, and whether the desirable growth persisted after the campers had returned to their home communities.

In its method the evaluation study concentrated on the Encampment of 1955. Carefully drawn measuring instruments were devised to register the attitudes, convictions, viewpoints, values and intentions of the campers. The test was administered to the campers when they arrived and before they could be affected by the Encampment programme, and these tests were repeated at the end of the six weeks. In order to make certain that change and growth effects of the Encampment would be accurate and attributable solely and entirely to the Encampment, special methods were used to identify and subtract that percentage of change which was due to normal change and growth over a six weeks period for young people of this age range, and the degree of change which might have been due to the impact of world events in any normal six weeks period. The residue of change was then attributable to the Encampment.

In order to test further the specific effect of the Encampment, in comparison with a similar group exposed to an alternative significant educational experience, a comparative study was made of the changes in the young people at the Encampment and in those at the work camps of the American Friends Service Committee. The age range and basic backgrounds and viewpoints were comparable. The measuring instruments which had been used in a careful study of the work camps were available for comparative study.

To determine the lasting effect and persistence of the change and growth after campers had returned to their home communities and

to conditions which might not give support to the changed attitudes and actions, a study was made of the campers of 1955 at a period six weeks after they had left the Encampment. In addition, a study was made of the Encampment alumni of the nine previous Encampments of 1946 to 1954. This material gave the evaluators data for measuring the immediate impact and long-range after-effects of the Encampment programme.

The findings indicate that the Encampment succeeds in recruiting a diversified group. True to the purpose of the Encampment to stress and offer a truly democratic experience, recruitment secures a cross-section of American youth. The campers of the age-group 18 to 23 represent every religious, racial, economic, sectional and social background. Catholic, Protestant, Jew and other religious groups in the American population are present in sizable numbers. Farmers, workers, students, young people of business and professional background constitute a reasonable and balanced number within each religious and racial group, and among the Negroes of North and South, Southern whites, and the approximately equivalent groups drawn from the East coast, West coast, Midwest and South. American Indians constitute a valuable element in the education of the other campers.

In summary, the Encampment consisted of a group of young men and women who could speak for the views and problems of all sections of our country, for all religious, racial, and economic groups. The Encampment was not a miniature America, but it was far from being only a limited segment of the nation. Consequently, the horizons of each camper could be readily broadened by his contact with fellow campers during the summer.

The Encampment combines an education in the principles of democracy with the practical experience of democratic living. Each of these components—the formal education and the informal life—interacts with the other to produce the ethos of the summer's experience.

After six weeks, many changes, attributable specifically to the experience, occurred—making them an even more democratically oriented and effectively committed group. Unfavourable side effects which might have accompanied the experience were found to be negligible. However, in two areas where favourable changes might have been anticipated, the effects were negligible.

Campers became more approving of traditional civil liberties, became more tolerant of freedom for non-conformists, became stronger in defence of civil rights for minorities, became more optimistic about solving pressing

social problems, remained firm in their belief in the potency of group action in the solution of social problems, but declined in beliefs that individualistic action is effective, felt less sense of social isolation, showed a small increase in tendency toward political action through accepted social channels, exemplified the philosophy of the dignity of man in the friendships they formed irrespective of race during the summer.

But they did not become unrealistic in views as to the ease of solving problems, become more provincial in their conceptions of a democratic society, become prejudiced in reverse—friendships were formed proportionately towards whites and Negroes—become more 'radical' in their political ideology, become alienated from the common man, or harshened in their view of the 'average American', nor show any increased tendency to see America as unbound by moral imperatives.

The return to the home community ushered in a new situation. After confronting the community for six weeks, the following positive effects of the Encampment remain: Campers as a group show no weakening of their resolve or reversion in ideology, do not decline in their faith in the possibility of group action within the home setting, do not show any decline in tolerance, do not lose their optimism about

the solution of social problems although more realism tinges their perspectives, do not lose their orientation toward action, do not lose their sentiments on behalf of civil liberties and civil rights.

The gains are strong despite adversity. Comparisons of groups reveal that the Negro campers, by and large, maintain their ideological gains, the campers from the Southern states maintain their ideological gains, the campers maintain their ideological gains in the absence of social support from friends, family or other campers.

The alumni of past Encampments, removed from its influence for periods of one to nine years, show generally a parallel profile of attitudes. Despite the passage of time, the alumni furthest removed show no marked lessening of sentiments on behalf of tolerance and civil liberties.

One outstanding fact determined is that the Encampment alumni show an unusually high tendency to vote, in contrast with other comparative groups in the United States population.

Finally, past history teaches the difficulty of producing alterations in character in short periods of time and it is against this ultimate standard that wisdom dictates the judgment: the Encampment of 1955 was successful.

UNESCO NEWS

MEETING OF EXPERTS IN FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

The Unesco Secretariat has been engaged for some time in a rethinking of the concept of fundamental education, in an effort to clarify its scope and purposes and its relationship with other concepts, such as community development, agricultural extension, environmental sanitation and the expansion of small industries. This clarification has of course not been the concern of Unesco alone; the Administrative Committee on Co-ordination of the United Nations and Specialized Agencies proposed at its twenty-first session that a working group should undertake to clarify and redefine as necessary, on the basis of recent experiences, the concept of community development and related concepts such as fundamental education and agricultural extension. It is within this framework of concerted thinking by the United Nations and Specialized Agencies that the appraisal of the fundamental education centres by an inter-agency mission,¹ takes its place.

The Director-General considered that this rethinking should incorporate the practical experience of Unesco's best field workers in fundamental education, of whom there are now more than sixty operating in Member States under the Technical Assistance and regular programmes. At the same time, it became obvious that these experts themselves are increasingly faced with the necessity of co-ordinating their fundamental education programmes in the field with the various related services now growing up, often with the assistance of other international organizations, especially in rural areas.

The Director-General accordingly called to headquarters for a 10-day meeting 20 of Unesco's field experts, including the directors of the two regional fundamental education centres (ASPEC and CREFAL), the directors of the new fundamental education centre in Korea and, as an invited guest, the director of the Indian National Centre for Fundamental Education, who was in Europe on a

1. See editorial to our July 1956 issue.

Unesco fellowship. The United Nations and other Specialized Agencies concerned were also invited to be represented by observers; the United Nations was represented by Miss Julia Henderson, Director of the Bureau of Social Affairs, and another staff member, and the World Health Organization was also represented. These guests from other organizations played a most active and creative part in the meetings, which took place from 18 to 29 June.

The Secretariat had prepared a first draft document of some hundred pages in the form of a revised description of fundamental education, which was used by the meeting as a working paper. The experts divided into working groups to deal with the separate parts of this document: a group on the definition and organization of fundamental education, another on technical problems and methods, and a third on supporting services of fundamental education. These groups worked with intensity to produce, within the first three days of the meeting, substantial reports which were then fully discussed in a series of plenary meetings. The records of these discussions and the reports of the working groups have brought to the rethinking of fundamental education a wealth of practical experience and varied technical knowledge. At the same time the experts themselves greatly profited from an exchange of views with their colleagues and with the Secretariat.

Among the most important ideas clarified by the meeting are the following:

Fundamental education should take its place as an essential service of community development; where specialized technical services are not yet established in underdeveloped communities, fundamental education may be regarded as the first phase of community development, providing a broad programme of popular education, perhaps with a focus on adult literacy; where a composite community development project already exists, fundamental education will take its place among other technical services, in a narrower and more specialized role. It then operates in such fields of activity as the organization of an adult literacy programme, of library services for literates, of dramatic or recreational activities, or of audio-visual education.

Fundamental education has important supporting services to provide which may be of value also to other technical departments operating for example in agricultural extension or health fields. These services include: experimental study, training, the production of educational materials.

Arising out of these conclusions, the role of fundamental education as a specialized service of community development will increasingly demand from Unesco the employment of more highly specialized and technically qualified field workers in its programmes of technical assistance and aid to Member States.

Following this meeting the Acting Director of the Department of Education and the Head of the Fundamental Education Division represented Unesco, together with Mr. René Maheu, of Unesco New York office, at the meeting of the Working Group on Community Development of the Administrative Committee on Co-ordination held in Geneva from 30 June to 4 July. The ideas developed at the meeting in Paris were of very direct value to Unesco's representatives at the working group, enabling them to present the role of fundamental education in concerted programmes of community development on the basis of a widely considered and fully discussed position.

PRODUCTION OF READING MATERIAL FOR NEW LITERATES: REGIONAL MEETING OF EXPERTS

From 8 to 16 June the Government of Pakistan acted as host to a Unesco meeting on the above topic. Experts from Burma, Ceylon, India and Pakistan attended. The discussions were based on reports submitted by each country as well as on a series of technical papers supplied by the Unesco Secretariat. The discussions were aided by the presence as consultants of Mr. Donald Burns, an expert on fundamental education now working in Pakistan, Mr. Peter Neumann, an expert on production problems, and Mr. Seth Spaulding, an expert on editorial and research problems. Mr. Neumann and Mr. Spaulding are both working with the Burma Translation Society as Unesco and Ford Foundation experts respectively.

The main recommendations of the meeting were as follows:

There is a basic need for adequate training of (a) authors; (b) editors; (c) book designers; (d) book illustrators; (e) production specialists; (f) publishers; (g) booksellers; (h) librarians; (i) research workers.

There is a definite need for basic and applied research to determine and clarify the problems connected with the production of reading materials.

There is need at both the national and regional levels for the creation of clearing-house services which will collect and disseminate information of interest to authors, publishers,

research workers, and agencies concerned with the production of reading material. Governments of the region should assist in the establishment of non-governmental, non-profit seeking national agencies which, in co-operation with authors' associations, publishers, librarians, booksellers and the general public, could carry out tasks devoted to the co-ordination of present national efforts, stimulate public interest in books and raise standards of book production.

There is need to study how government distribution systems could be made more effective.

Unesco should help member countries to establish National Library Services.

Governments should study how private publishers could help set up co-operative warehousing and distribution systems.

Publishers' associations should co-operate with booksellers' associations in establishing general credit ratings.

Publishers should set up credit co-operatives which could make loans available to members.

Governments, in co-operation with national and international agencies, could set up credit funds from which rotating loans could be made to deserving publishers.

Unesco should assist in a study of royalties and authors' rights in the region and should encourage the formation of professional associations.

Unesco could contribute a number of awards to authors and suggest setting up an authors' aid and old-age fund to which both authors and publishers contribute.

Many of the above activities could best be carried out by the organization of research, service, and training centres. Unesco should assist national governments in the region in the establishment of such centres wherever governments so desire and are willing to provide the necessary facilities.

Unesco should negotiate with governments of the region the establishment of a regional centre or regional services which would meet the common needs of the region.

Unesco should negotiate with national authorities (a) the question of reducing the difficulties connected with the importation of necessary raw materials and equipment for the production of reading materials; (b) the reduction of postal charges and railway freights on educational reading materials.

The meeting recognized that many of its recommendations could best be met by the creation of national training, research and service agencies.

These centres could be expected to cover at

least the following recommendations: training, research, clearing house, co-ordination and publicity, studies at national level, awards to authors.

The report of the meeting is being circulated among all Member States of Unesco, and those Member States which participated are being asked to comment on the above recommendations.

Later this year Unesco is sending six experts from Burma, Ceylon, India and Pakistan overseas for advanced study under its fellowship programme. A series of basic studies of conditions, problems and possibilities in the region are being completed and grants have been made to operating agencies to assist them in producing model reading material.

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

Reading Material for New Literates

The provision of appropriate follow-up literature for persons who have, at one time or another, acquired the basic techniques of reading, has assumed increasing importance within the expanded programme of technical assistance. Broadly, such material must fulfil certain basic functions: complete acquaintance with the printed word, give practice in reading, encourage recourse to written matter in general and provide texts to entertain or instruct at the appropriate level and within the framework of local life and experience. In the past, it has been found difficult to produce such material commercially for a variety of reasons—economic, educational, sociological and linguistic (small editions, adaptation of style and vocabulary, etc.)—and government support has been found necessary. Financial assistance to semi-autonomous literature-producing agencies or publishing programmes undertaken directly by ministries or departments are examples of such support. Unesco technical assistance experts are now active in promoting the production of follow-up literature in the Gold Coast, Liberia, and at the regional fundamental education centres of CREFAL and ASFEC.

The Gold Coast Vernacular Literature Bureau, for instance, was established as an independent statutory body in 1950 and charged with producing basic literature for teaching illiterates, easy texts for follow-up work, newspapers, advanced literature for the reading public and a certain number of translations. It now operates in six vernacular languages and Mr. E. L. Read (U.S.A.) arrived in the Gold Coast in April 1956 to

take over the duties of director. The Bureau is being reorganized along business lines, some restaffing carried out and the sales organization expanded. Miss Ella Griffin (U.S.A.) took up her duties as managing editor of the Vernacular Literature Bureau at the end of 1955; her work is chiefly connected with giving intensified training to the editors responsible for the production of simple, follow-up literature and newspapers for new literates. Two bi-monthly newspapers have been increased in size from four to eight pages and the papers in the Ewe and Nzema languages revived after having been discontinued for about a year. Six bi-monthly newspapers are thus now being produced. There has been a constant flow of material for translation connected with the extension work of government departments such as the Ministries of Agriculture and of Health. Information literature on the Volta River has been completed, research and study started in preparation for the grading of reading materials in all vernacular languages and the in-service training of editors began with a series of periodic staff meetings.

In Liberia a considerable number of attractive booklets (stories and legends, items about health, history and good citizenship, etc.) have been put out within the framework of the National Literacy Campaign of the Department of Public Instruction. At the fundamental education centre in Klay, an illustrative booklet called *Our Liberia*, containing historical, geographical and economic information about the country, was compiled and reproduced.

The CREFAL, Patzcuaro, regional centre has put out several series of booklets for new literates. These deal with home economics (e.g. baby feeding, personal hygiene) agriculture (e.g. rabbit keeping, the sale of fruits, animal husbandry, maize cultivation) and health (e.g. pure water, intestinal disorders insect disease carriers). Written in simple Spanish, these booklets are profusely illustrated with drawings and sometimes recount stories through pictures annotated with short texts beneath.

At ASFEC, Sirs-el-Layyan, Egypt, a set of agricultural guidance booklets in story form has been published covering such topics as bee-keeping and improved methods of raising rabbits. A monthly wall newspaper is also produced and copies supplied to other Arabic-speaking fundamental education centres. This



paper is illustrated with photographs and drawings, contains items of local news, hints on health and agriculture, short features and announcements. Though ASFEC does not aim to produce follow-up literature as a primary activity, the results described are the outcome of the normal training activities of this centre.

Ceylon: Fundamental Education Centre at Minneriya

Co-operation between Unesco and the Government of Ceylon in fundamental education began when the Minneriya Centre in the Hingurakgoda area was opened in March 1951 under the directorship of Dr. Spencer Hatch (U.S.A.). When Dr. Hatch's mission ended in June 1955, the Government of Ceylon took over the full responsibility for the continuation of the project. Mr. C. J. Oppen (U.K.), Unesco fundamental education specialist, was, however, assigned to it for a period of six months ending in May 1956 in order to help the Ceylonese director during the centre's early transitional period. Although the project is no longer assisted by Unesco technical assistance funds, readers may be interested in its development.

The Department of Rural Development and Cottage Industries of the Ceylonese Ministry of Home Affairs proposes to carry on the project at its national training centre for government officers serving in the rural areas. The centre is accommodated in the buildings of an air training camp erected during the war, and is situated in one of the first areas on the island to be settled by colonists who have migrated from their home villages to a new region. Their life is hard but they are furnished

with a house, land and a guaranteed market for paddy by the government. These somewhat unusual sociological conditions have, in the past, caused some difficulty in the local work of the centre.

Under the new plan five officers will be seconded to Minneriya for two years in the first instance, with an option for an extension for a further three years. They are to be specialists respectively in adult education, agriculture, co-operation, cottage industries, rural development and health.

Three-month training courses will be given to groups of about 25 persons, who would be government officers, mostly junior in service, but technically trained and with some experience in their work. The majority would no doubt be men, but occasional courses may be given for women also. As for the contents of the training itself, future policy is to be based on three main considerations: firstly, that the needs of the training programme as such be given overriding importance; secondly, that work in the villages be done through existing government services rather than by direct initiative and that the instruction team work with the local field officers while the trainees participate in this work rather than merely observe it; and thirdly that the training in the field and at the centre be continually tested for its relevance to the conditions or situations which trainees are likely to encounter later in the discharge of their duties. The project area is also to be reduced from over 80 villages or colonies spread over 1,000 square miles which have hitherto been covered by it, to no more than about 25 communities, half of which would be immediately round the centre and the rest somewhat farther away.

Jordan: Fundamental Education Centre

The Jordan Fundamental Education Centre at Hawara started its activities in October 1955. An initial effort was made to combine fundamental with rural education through the rural schools by getting fundamental education teachers to take a few normal classes in order to leave the teachers free time in which to acquaint themselves with fundamental education ideas. Certain practical difficulties have been encountered in putting this into practice, but a good beginning has nevertheless been made.

The five fundamental educators at Hawara are specialized respectively in social welfare, agricultural extension, health, literacy and home economics. Three of them are ASFEC graduates and all are under the direction of the Unesco expert, Mr. F. Akil (Syria).

Two classes have been started in home economics, one to cover this subject in general and the other to teach knitting, needlework, cloth-mending, etc. They are being attended by some 65 girls between the ages of 16 and 28 years. The specialist in home economics is also rendering first-aid services and has for example, examined the eyesight of the girls.

There has been some experimentation with new strains of wheat and barley and a variety of fruit trees have been bought. The villagers are being taught how to plant and care for them. Furthermore, coniferous shelter belts have been planted for protection against wind and erosion, and several model plots of vegetables raised.

In social welfare, progress has been a little slower because the individual advantages are not immediately obvious to the villagers, who must first become acquainted with the idea of co-operation for distant communal ends. Money is being collected gradually to finance the building of a main road to link the school with the high road. A rural reform society is being founded and the existing co-operative society reorganized.

To improve health conditions, 60 latrines have been constructed, two first-aid centres are functioning and a campaign against TB has been initiated. A school health committee has been formed and all pupils have received BCG inoculations.

In Hawara, illiteracy is much higher amongst women than amongst men. The two evening



Members of the Young Farmers' Club of Mutugale teach principles of hygiene and medicine to Ceylonese women. (Unesco.)

classes which are functioning cater for illiterates and semi-literates, the first being attended by over 20 pupils between the ages of 17 and 60, the second by about 17 pupils between the ages of 18 and 45. Reading and writing is taught to both groups, but the semi-literates also receive instruction in arithmetic. Simple talks on agricultural, health and social matters are given to both classes.

Preparations have been made to form a cultural club as part of the rural reform society, and a school cultural committee meets monthly. A wall newspaper is being published and two evening study rooms are open five times a week.

Members of the Hawara team have been visiting villages in the district with the object of selecting two in which to extend their work.

TEN YEARS OF SERVICE TO PEACE

On the occasion of the tenth anniversary of its foundation, Unesco has just published a richly illustrated booklet, *Ten Years of Service to Peace*, which gives an account of its work.

This pamphlet describes the various activities which the Member States of Unesco have decided to carry on by pooling their resources in order to achieve certain common objectives.

Ten Years of Service to Peace not only gives the reader a clear picture of the problems which confront the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, the techniques which have been used to solve these problems and the results obtained, but also answers a good many questions which most people ask about Unesco.

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